

Home and Family Life Education
in
Elementary Schools

Home and Family Life
EDUCATION in
Elementary Schools

By

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Preface

Modifications of predominant kinds of elementary school programs are needed today because present programs are not helping children adequately with their personal and home-living problems.

This book is presented with the hope that it may be useful to administrators, teacher-educators, supervisors, teachers-in-service, student teachers, parents of school children, and other adults in school communities who are beginning or extending planned education for personal, home, and family living in elementary schools and in the community.

School administrators may find the suggestions offered of value when they are modifying the general education and home-living programs of the school, or when they are promoting school-community centered programs. The book may be helpful in colleges as a guide and source book for students of general education and home economics, especially those who are preparing to teach young children. Elementary and home economics teachers-in-service who are seeking to correlate pupils' school and out-of-school learning may find the principles and suggested procedures of help. These, if used to teach pupils through experiences which arise from specific situations, may serve to reveal important needs of children and their families and may lead to other experiences which will further enrich the children's general education.

Socially desirable objectives of education and experiences which have proved successful in certain schools in attaining such objectives are presented to illustrate how pupils may be challenged to study because they have certain goals and study is a means of reaching them.

Part One presents an over-all view of the nature of personal and family living today, of children's new responsibilities, of changing concepts of education, and of the role of

the school in personal and family living and the life of the community. Consideration is given to certain fundamental needs of all children and to the methods of searching out and meeting those peculiar to each child. Objectives of education for personal, home, and family life are shown in relation to goals of general education. The illustrative experiences show the progressive quality of the learning which occurs when a child grows and matures normally, and point out the values contained for him in an enriched program of education for personal, home, and family living.

Part Two includes kinds of school, home, and community experiences that are possible, and correlated understandings likely to be gained by children in the preschool, kindergarten, primary, intermediate, and upper elementary years. Emphasis is placed both on personal and on group-organized study procedures. The projects described show how increased self-direction becomes possible from year to year. The procedures suggested are based on the belief that democratic living can prevail in school, and that pupils learn more readily in democratic situations.

Recognition is given to daily life situations of children which give rise to desirable experiences and to possible correlations with music, health, science, social studies, literature, and English, and with family and community life. Stories about homes and families which children have read and enjoyed are suggested for pupils to read for pleasure, emphasis being placed on the human relationships in family living. Principles which indicate the kind and depth of understandings that pupils may gain from their experiences represent the factual materials which are to be found in reference books for children of different ages. Although evaluations begin with an experience and are continuous, some ways are suggested by which teachers and pupils may evaluate progress in learning.

References and aids for teachers and pupils accompany each area of learning.

Practical means for making the transition from the more

traditional to the democratic kinds of programs are suggested. Educational values which are being sought in the experimental programs reported in the book may serve as a point of departure for persons wishing to develop similar kinds of programs or to evaluate the growth of persons who are participating in going programs.

The book concludes with an appendix of illustrative programs, study devices, teaching aids which have been used by teachers in seeking ways to help children live and study together democratically, and a bibliography.

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E. S.

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Contents

Part One

A New Concept of Home and Family Life Education

I. THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SITUATION	3
II. FOUNDATIONS FOR THE NEW PROPOSALS	26
III. KINDS OF EXPERIENCES WHICH CONTRIBUTE TO THE BEST DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD	42
IV. HOW EXPERIENCES DEVELOP	63

Part Two

Suggested Experiences in Personal, Home, and Family Life

V. LEARNING TO LIVE, AND TO LIVE WITH OTHERS	79
VI. FOOD FOR PLEASURE, HEALTH, AND SOCIABILITY	106
VII. CARING FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN AND CONVA- LESCENTS	137
VIII. CHILDREN WORK FOR BETTER HOMES AND HOUSING	151
IX. LEARNING HOW TO DRESS	173
X. BEING AN INTELLIGENT CONSUMER	203
XI. MODIFYING THE PROGRAM	221
XII. EVALUATING THE PROGRAM	250
APPENDIX	273
BIBLIOGRAPHY	289
INDEX	301

PART ONE. A NEW CONCEPT OF HOME
AND FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION

I. The Elementary School Situation

INTRODUCTION

The school is an integral part of society, affected by and influencing it in many ways. This is recognized by the modern democratic state, committed to respect the worth and rights of each person and to uphold and extend the social agencies which help develop personal and group integrity.

Democratic nations recognize also that the family is of first importance socially and educationally, believing that in the family group the child is cared for best, and that here are laid the foundations of personal and group character.

People strive for a living and the satisfactions of a full life as they see it; a home and loved ones are a major part of the good life they seek. Each family in a democracy has the privilege of deciding many matters, such as its relation to its community, the section where it will live, the church it will attend, the place where its children will play and with whom, and the kinds of commodities and services it desires. The family frequently has difficulty in surviving in the modern world, however, because it is affected by so many local, state, and world events.

Changes resulting from unavoidable pressures have brought insecurity to many persons and families, with ideals and efforts confused, homes disorganized, and lives broken. The new democracy has an obligation to set up procedures and means for helping each person and family determine values of peculiar worth to them, and for equalizing social and economic burdens and benefits.

THE SCHOOLS HAVE NEW RESPONSIBILITY

The living problems of individuals and families have not been recognized generally as a direct responsibility of educa-

tion because the same kinds of pressures now strengthen, now disrupt the personality of individuals and the unity of family life. Helping people to think through and meet their living problems is, however, a legitimate school responsibility as all aspects of his living influence a person's learning.

Material goals, considered of minor importance by some educators, serve as a powerful incentive to learning and can be used to help people live on increasingly higher physical, intellectual, social, and spiritual levels, thus harmonizing many kinds of worthwhile goals. Although fundamental happiness is not obtained entirely through material means, the levels of living of a great many people must be raised if a wholesome and more democratic way of life is to be the prevailing mode.

The schools are challenged to help people interpret and use new scientific and economic facts which are being presented daily through the press, radio, and screen. The public is, for example, more conscious of health, foods, diet, housing, and consumer values. It needs standards by which to judge the new facts and make its choices.

The elementary schools have heretofore aimed to educate pupils in those knowledges and skills, including manual ones, which are thought needed by all persons, so that they would have command of the arts of communication; would develop worthy social attitudes and healthy minds and bodies; and would have experiences in school which would encourage them to seek desirable leisure and recreational activities outside the school.

Accomplishment has fallen short of these objectives as there is great divergence between school learnings and out-of-school practices. Ideals of democracy and personal responsibility have been taught in the schools by various means, including the use of printed materials which are intended to induct pupils into the American way of life. Democracy in action goes farther, however, by offering each person the opportunity to take part in group activities according to his abilities and desire as well as to pursue socially acceptable personal goals.

SCHOOLS HAVE A NEW OUTLOOK

Many schools of the country have accepted challenges to educate for a more satisfying kind of democratic living. They are now seeking ways by which democracy can be put into practice, and children be better prepared for living. Efforts are being made to develop among the pupils joint responsibility for those group activities to which all may contribute.

It is still difficult in many districts to have truly democratic leadership and participation in the school system, individual schools, or classrooms because of the persistence of traditional, formal educational procedures and conflicting purposes. Many educators have been trained under authoritarian methods which they consider valuable enough to use today. For example, class instruction is kept uniform in grade levels so that pupils transferring from class to class or from school to school will not have program irregularities or disrupt class scheduling and other administrative procedures.

As a way of living, democracy may be present in the classrooms, but it often stops there. Fair practices and an understanding of differences must be sought by schools because discriminations and prejudices abound there as elsewhere. For example, the parents and the homes of the non-English-speaking group, still on the fringe of the school life, hold for it and for the community a vast and rich unexplored resource.

Cooperative educational planning is increasing and new methods of teaching and learning challenge the schools. The government and industry, assisted by educators, recently set an example of adaptation to the needs of the community. They met the demand for well-trained men and women for war work by using abbreviated textbook and audio-visual materials and other short cuts to the desired ends. Experience will prove the long-time effectiveness of the new ways of teaching factual materials quickly. Schools might use similar methods in teaching certain studies, if by them time were made available for more democratic living experiences in school.

Many beginnings have been made for schools to work with government and private social agencies to help people improve or maintain their health, intellectual progress, and financial and social living levels. If the schools are to expand these beginnings into accepted procedures and be effective in their primary function—education—many of them will need to revise their programs in terms of the needs of children, youth, and adults. *Contrary to the opinion of certain educators, such revisions need not conflict with important learnings but may further them.* If education is to keep pace with the needs of the children, its personnel will need to enlist the active interest of the lay public, the children, and their parents in the program of the schools. Only in this way may anyone hope to keep a position of leadership in national education and affairs.

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL ADAPTATION IS SOUGHT

THE SCHOOL PROVIDES SOCIAL EXPERIENCES

Studies of the published and unpublished curriculums of school systems and individual schools show a universal effort to help children become healthy, wholesome, cooperative citizens. Stated goals and activities recommended to stress guidance in personal growth and development and desirable social relationships reveal that schools accept the responsibility to carry forward these aspects of the child's social education. This may or may not have been well begun in his home.

In-school experiences have been limited. Observations and objective studies of current practices in elementary schools reveal unequal opportunity for children to have adequate social guidance. Actually, only certain schools, and, within schools, only certain teachers and pupils work together on projects which relate to social problems of living. Children cannot be interested in matters too far removed from their own lives, and many problems set up in school for study are more like subject-matter-to-be-learned than problem-solving situations which develop intelligent social living.

Schools depend largely upon group social experiences within the school to satisfy the school's responsibility for social education. These are frequently limited by crowded programs and school routines which absorb most of the time the child does not spend on subject study. In many schools children are permitted to work in the school office, library, news room, cafeteria, and to do other special services, for which they receive awards in recognition of these "citizenship" activities. This democratic living enables some children to contribute to the welfare of the group, but there are not enough of these services to go around. Each child needs the satisfaction of contributing, and plans should be made whereby all contribute.

Little time is given in school hours to educate for leisure. One city stresses physical activities for leisure to the exclusion of other equally valuable ones which may be educational as well as pleasurable. Creative activities in many shops and classrooms might emphasize leisure hours and be one link between the home and the school. Through social occasions which include children of different age groups the child is also helped to learn to adjust to those older and younger than he.

Schools assist with community activities. Most schools take part in city-wide welfare movements such as the Red Cross and Community Fund drives, and officially support worthwhile interests within the locality of the school. In many instances, the school administrators or appointees from among the staff or faculty direct the drives for funds, allowing pupils to carry out only routine activities connected with them. Out-of-school organizations have recognized children's ability to carry responsible tasks; the Junior Red Cross, 4H Club, and Boy and Girl Scout programs recognize creative social activities, and make the children feel they are valued members of their social group.

Some districts have community councils in which the teachers, the parents, and social workers unify their efforts for the best interests of the community. In relatively few places,

however, are pupils invited to consider near-adult problems within the range of their abilities and experiences.

Certain city and village community centers cooperate with the school superintendents and teachers to coordinate the after-school programs planned by each group. These centers offer a wide range of activities—hiking, gymnasium, and clubs of all kinds for the children; sports, dramatics, craft courses, and forums for the older persons. Some schools have community rooms, open to pupils and adults after school hours. All communities could profitably establish some such center.

Kindergartens have a social atmosphere. The experiences of the kindergarten programs, where schools have these important units, may be most valuable as socializing influences. The kindergarten programs are usually built around themes based on the general interests of the children, introducing, among other topics, study of nature, animals, family, and neighborhood life. One five-year-old group was recently observed broadcasting from its own station—and about the day's war happenings. In the programs of the nursery school and kindergarten, the interrelationships which exist between the child's home and school life should be recognized, and the parents of the children should be considered essential members of the group in study and in the daily life of the group at school. In the movement to organize many new kindergarten and nursery school units—included in plans for a better kind of elementary education—parents can be an important link between the school and the community.

There is danger that the nursery school and kindergarten may be just another school year for the child. Observation has revealed that fixed schedules of activities are the order of the day in many kindergartens, with activities planned for the group as a whole, giving slight recognition to the needs of the individual child or to his interest span. In many kindergarten groups games and play are closely supervised. This type of direction tends to have all the children doing the same thing at the same time and to make the teacher suggest and direct what the children do, instead of encouraging creative play to

develop each child's mental and physical powers as well as to help him in social adjustment.

HEALTH EDUCATION IS EMPHASIZED

Practices in kindergartens are educationally sound. The kindergarten and nursery schools are valuable in laying good foundations of health and physical fitness. The child's health is of great importance, and through health programs temporary or beginning disabilities may be located and remedial action taken at once. Where the preschool is included in the school organization daily inspection of each child's health is usually made. A balance between activity and rest is planned, and also one or more organized rest periods in which each child rests on a cot or rug placed on the floor. A mid-morning lunch is provided, consisting of crackers and milk, or crackers and fruit juice, or, in schools which have many undernourished children, a hot meal. In a great many schools, however, the lunch has become so routinized that children needing special feeding because of nutritional deficiencies are not provided for. In the newer buildings where space has been planned for the kindergarten, toilet facilities are usually excellent and adjoin the room. In old buildings where rooms have been adapted to the use of little children, toilets are frequently inaccessible, inconvenient, and unsanitary. In such instances it is difficult to develop good toilet and hygiene habits. Drinking fountains also are often not convenient to all the rooms.

Health services are more extensive in the larger cities or where more funds are devoted to them. In most school systems, routine health examinations are given each child before he enters kindergarten or first grade and at stated times thereafter, usually every three years. In many instances, the follow-up examinations are not regularly made nor is the accumulated health information placed where it may be used at once by the teacher. Many larger school systems have clinics to conduct special examinations and provide treatment for

special cases. Health clinics for families are organized in some city and village schools.

Textbook study supplements elementary school practices. In the kindergarten and early primary years, health study is interwoven with other study. The plan in most curriculums shifts to units of study in the intermediate years, when, in approximately one class hour a week, health is taught by the classroom teacher. Textbooks, supplemented by bulletins, are used; these too often are not authentic because newer scientific discoveries have made them out of date. Laboratory-like experiments carried on in the homeroom are an excellent supplement to other methods of study, although frequently materials and time for them are not available. Personal grooming, facts about nutrition and foodstuffs, disease, and sanitation are included. Recently first aid has been stressed as a result of new emphasis on health but omission of other materials needed at these ages is evident, especially social hygiene knowledge. Junior Safety Councils and Patrols promote an excellent safety program in certain cities, supplementing the classroom study of safety measures.

Physical education programs usually follow carefully outlined courses of study for each grade, as in other studies. Gymnasiums are provided, but often the elementary grade children do not have the regular use of them. Daily free play and outdoor activity are also not as general as is desirable. In crowded cities this fact may be attributed to the lack of playground space, but at times the outdoor play space is not used even though available. The lack of frequent opportunity for exercise is hazardous to physical growth and health because classrooms are usually not large enough, nor equipped for group activities. The tendency therefore is to encourage dependence upon more sedentary activities and teacher leadership. Poor mental hygiene is the result; the children become overquiet and retiring rather than happy and active, increasingly self-directive, and able to make a healthy adjustment to other people.

School lunch programs are a health aid. School lunch pro-

grams are not as prevalent as they should be, as the value of a warm school lunch to a child's health and education has not been generally recognized. In many schools pupils eat packed lunches at their desks without the accompaniment of milk or drinking water. In others the children must hurry home during the one short hour at noon, or eat at a corner store. Frequently such shops do not handle foods best suited to the school child, and there is greater opportunity for him to make undesirable social acquaintances than there would be in a school-managed lunch room.

In schools which have a cafeteria or serve a lunch, the classroom study of health obtainable through diet is seldom related to the lunch room practices, and the lunches provided do not always make the choice of a balanced meal desirable or possible. Recent nation-wide emphasis upon the nutritional status of children has, however, caused many schools to make it possible for more pupils to have adequate, nutritious lunches at school, and to teach them the value of eating adequate lunches.

PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND HOME-LIVING MATERIALS ARE STUDIED

Each of the subject areas traditionally considered of most importance in the general curriculum of the elementary school contains much material which could be effective in helping the child in his personal, home, and social living. When such materials are included in the curriculum, however, they are not always so used that they lead to changed living of the child or of his family.

In general and social studies courses selected for research analysis from a representative list of states, counties, and villages, it was found that a study of foods was included in the health units and some attention was given to personal care, recreation, clothing and housing, first aid, and consumer-buying. Topics dealing with the house are often included in the second grade in relation to the playhouse. Many topics on the selection and use of consumer goods and services are seen.

Strangely enough, all these topics are included more often in the primary than in the intermediate years. This suggests that they are treated very simply because of children's limited experience at these ages, or that they are used chiefly to motivate study in other areas, such as geography, spoken and written English, or art. Toys are recommended as a medium for study in many courses of study for art, with slight emphasis placed on standards for their selection and use.

Courses of study do not always provide a thorough analysis of the problems involved in a situation. This might be an advantage if teachers would explore their local situations and adapt the suggested materials to solving problems they have discovered.

Several encouraging trends are observed in courses of study produced in the latter part of the past decade. Materials or content for study are being reorganized and approaches are suggested which use project and problem-solving methods. There is a realization of the need for new material, some of which is appearing in the field of modern social problems. Experiences related to home living are being used in certain integrated programs at the lower levels. To illustrate: The study of the food, clothing, and shelter of the colonists is frequently introduced in the Colonial life unit. However, the majority of the schools do not consciously include goals of education for wholesome family life today in their programs for the elementary years. In some sections of the country, in certain schools and districts where teachers are free to formulate their own programs, one finds more teachers basing the study in the elementary years on child, family, and community problems. This brings homemaking experiences directly into the curriculum.

HOME AND FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION EMPHASIZES TRADITIONAL GOALS

Home economists have participated in research on the needs of persons and families and in devising ways and means for meeting certain of their needs through a better curricu-

lum. In their zeal to improve the curriculum in home and family life education in secondary schools, colleges, and adult groups, home economists have given little help to the improvement of elementary school programs. The result has been that, if education for home and family living is included in the elementary school curriculum, certain traditionally accepted study patterns persist. Many cities, large and small, provide only sewing and cooking experiences for girls below the seventh grade if they offer homemaking instruction at all. Boys take general shop or industrial arts in such a plan, but occasionally there is an exchange of shop experiences when the girls may learn to use tools and the boys may cook. In general, there is slight emphasis on shelter, housekeeping, child care, and personal grooming—not to mention the related arts and sciences—until the child reaches the seventh grade.

In industrial arts classes children may make articles useful in the home, but it is the exception to find these made to fill a particular home need. Practical projects growing from the boys' personal needs are not in general use although some teachers give attention to the boys' problems of grooming and etiquette. In the majority of schools, units of homemaking instruction are not planned for the boys, but many of them are permitted to elect cookery in extracurricular clubs.

School experiences in personal and home living which are part of a primary grade child's study should be integral with his daily classroom life, thus becoming integrating forces in his developing personality, enlarging his knowledge of many phases of living, and helping him to understand his part as a contributor to his school and home life. Similar goals should guide learning experiences in the intermediate years, so that the child may become increasingly self-directive, and assume a greater share in family living and in the life of larger social groups.

Foods study is begun early. Emphases in most schools are largely confined to manipulative skills. Simple meals are prepared or one or two dishes cooked during the lesson. In a smaller number of schools the children prepare the entire

meal, working in groups of four. Food values may or may not be studied in relation to the foods prepared, the cookery itself usually receiving the greatest emphasis. As cooking is of great interest to the young child, its motivating force should not be minimized, but used to interest the children in many associated things-to-be-learned.

Sewing or clothing study may begin in the fifth or sixth grades. Clothing classes in the fifth and sixth grades tend to be devoted to teaching simple stitchery processes. The traditional pin balls, aprons, handkerchiefs, and towels are made. As skills develop, more complicated processes may be learned, possibly in the sixth grade, by making kimonos, blouses, or simple dresses. Frequently the total time allowed for handicrafts, with insistence upon high standards of achievement, confines the child's production to one article in a term. Adult standards of workmanship for young children may be questioned from an educational viewpoint and also in view of the commercial style values which many people prefer to accent, with the general effect of the finished garment sought rather than perfection in details. Standards should be in accord with the stage of development of each child, and results should be measured by him, or the group working with him, in terms of goals set by them.

Problem children receive more rounded experiences. The task of helping children meet some of their problems as individuals and as family members is more likely to be met in schools and classes of "problem" or exceptional children, because of the philosophy of the program for these children. In such schools or classes daily study centers around simple projects, which may include cooking and meal planning, the care of clothing, construction of clothing, care of younger children, and the use of the family money. This may be because the practical problems interest pupils, or because the teachers recognize that the children have these responsibilities and little or no help in understanding how to handle them. Other children have the same kinds of responsibilities, but uniform, all-city requirements or textbook procedures prevent

many teachers from knowing and using the daily living situations of their pupils as teaching material.

THE USE OF EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES VARIES

TEACHERS ARE ONE IMPORTANT RESOURCE

Some of the differences in the quality of the experiences described above are attributable to the philosophy, ability, and training of the teachers who help plan and carry through the experiences. Many teachers seeing the needs have, however, hesitated to go beyond their field of specialization to do anything about them. Others, who teach all the assigned subjects to their classes, have felt too limited by background and preparation to teach nutrition, economics, housing, or family and social relationships. Some teachers think this is a job for the specialist, others, that the day is not long enough to "cover" all that should be taught. To illustrate: Much of the sewing that is learned in the lower grades must be taught by the classroom teachers because there are not enough special teachers to teach it. Teachers may have the help of specialists and supervisors, yet not feel secure, because they think a high degree of skill is required. If emphases were transferred to helping the children to cooperate in their home living through the tasks they do at home anyway, the teacher's own daily living might be a rich source of teaching material and of creating pupils' interest in their homes.

In many districts the teachers know their communities and are concerned about the conditions of cultural poverty evident in the lives of the children. They often beautify the classroom to offset the meager home environment of the children. They direct the attention of the guidance specialists toward the children who need assistance, and help children to earn means for keeping up with their school work.

Teachers are eager to improve the curriculum. In order to have an experience program which makes possible the integration of the developing child, teachers of a school will work together, drawing upon all available resources for assistance

and pooling their skills so that all who work on the common problems will have a feeling of democratic action.' This means, in short, cooperation. It is difficult to achieve, but is being accomplished in some schools and school systems.

Teachers of the preschool and primary grades, dealing very closely with individual children, work constantly to form and keep wholesome person-to-person relationships. In the later elementary years subject-matter learning sometimes tends to overpower the social learning.

PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS AND STUDY GROUPS ARE AN ASSET

Teachers have tried to interest parents in their children's school program. In many of the lower elementary grades mothers' clubs have carried an active study program, meeting monthly to discuss child problems. It cannot be stated, however, that a large proportion of mothers take full advantage of the study groups. In certain schools parents come uninvited to the school for advice on discipline and economic problems related to the home. In most schools, even in some kindergartens where the opposite point of view might be expected, parents are desired only when invited or upon special occasions. Many mothers have been allowed to hold feelings of inferiority; many think their clothes are not good enough to appear in at school, and the large group of foreign-speaking women do not come to the school or to meetings. In those cities where visiting teachers are replacing attendance officers, rapport between the school and the home is improved, and many children are given the guidance they need at critical times during their growing-up.

Parent-Teacher Associations can be an educational unit in the program of a school. Whether they are depends upon which of the association's functions the members consider to be the most important. Frequently, when there are such organizations in the schools, they do not concern themselves with problems of education; many schools do not have a parent-teacher association. In general, parents are encour-

aged to participate in special school programs and affairs but, except in certain districts where a closer relationship between the parents and the school staff has been developed, the parents are not expected to help plan and carry out school projects.

Attempts are being made in many cities to utilize the recreational resources of community centers which are under specially trained staffs who are well fitted to act as coordinators of their own and the school's programs.

ENVIRONMENT AND MATERIAL RESOURCES AFFECT LEARNING

Each child responds to his material environment as well as to the people around him. It is the obligation of the school and the teacher to provide surroundings and materials for study which will be a challenge to the thinking and feeling of the children, and arouse their curiosity so that what they do is actual learning and not busy-work.

City and school libraries, classroom reference books, textbooks, laboratories, and many kinds of current literature are the usual resources for teaching. There is very little literature at the primary and intermediate level for help on personal problems or on how to be a contributor in the home. Textbooks treat more of health than of the child's social and economic problems, or of the development of homemaking skills and the care of younger children.

In the past decade there has been an increasing acceptance of the use of audio-visual materials for study, and of getting out into the community to use its facilities to enrich the children's daily experiences. Children's homes have not been used extensively but could well serve as laboratories for certain valuable experiences.

The classroom, however, serves as the child's headquarters at school. Much has been done in specific schools to make these homerooms attractive through colorful walls and furniture. Nevertheless, homerooms also show great variations in the efficiency and adaptability of the furniture and equip-

ment; in the beauty of the room and its general convenience; and in the amount and kind of study materials. Bulletin boards, bookshelves, and magazine racks may be sparse or generous in content, reflecting the philosophy of the teacher and pupils and the funds available.

Very few schools have provided rooms and equipment where many kinds of manual skills can be developed. Certain of the more modern schools which use experience-centered curriculums have a room where noisy activities such as woodwork and building can be done, and a quiet one for fine arts and crafts and homemaking activities. Such places should be used by every age group. If the rooms are large enough many articles-in-the-making can be carried on at once by the different groups and individuals, and the children can get inspiration and help from each other.

Rooms for homemaking study vary in attractiveness and efficiency somewhat according to the age of the buildings. In many older buildings basement rooms are still used and are equipped with formal desks and tables. In the newer ones, the equipment and manner of arrangement often express a more homelike atmosphere. However, in many new elementary school buildings, plans for home-living activities have not been made except by teachers in their own home-rooms; and home-living rooms, when included, are furnished for teaching skill subjects only, usually foods and clothing.

The skill subject of sewing is frequently taught in the classroom in the elementary grades. This is likely to lessen the effectiveness of the teaching and waste time through moving needed equipment from room to room. One frequently finds separate clothing and foods laboratory rooms in widely separated parts of the building. Clothing rooms tend to be equipped for cutting, sewing, and pressing of garments, but facilities for laundering, personal grooming, and related art experiences are usually inadequate and, in many schools, are entirely lacking. In many foods laboratories, one still sees the stoves, sinks, and work tables arranged in the "hollow square" which originated when every child did the same thing at the

same time. Where equipment is arranged like this it occupies most of the floor space, so that there is little room for serving meals, doing housekeeping, or having social practice. Many of the newer schools have family unit arrangement of the equipment for foods study. Few schools have living areas where different activities of home-living nature can be practiced under conditions simulating home life, and real life experiences enjoyed in a social atmosphere.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION INFLUENCE WHAT IS LEARNED

The way the school is organized and administered contributes to the kind of experiences which the children can have. How the children are classified in school, how the programs are set up, directed, and supervised, standards for evaluating the child's progress and for his promotion—all affect his experiences.

THREE MAJOR TYPES OF ORGANIZATION ARE USED

The kindergarten has long been recognized as a valuable unit in the primary years. Where it is a part of the public school, it is usually administered along with the primary group. This undoubtedly influences the kind of activities planned for the children, and may be one reason for the slow adoption of kindergartens. Many administrators and school patrons see in them only a pushing downward of formal education. The nursery school likewise has not been generally accepted as an essential part of every school. Should it not be? Opinion is divided on this issue yet the present need to care for great numbers of young children of working mothers demands the opening of many preschool centers. These may prove the value of including nursery schools as a part of early childhood education for all children.

The degree of departmentalization and the combinations of study areas differ widely among schools. This situation is caused, no doubt, by such administrative factors as the size of

the school, the numbers of pupils enrolled, the relation of the school to others in the district, the number and certification of the teachers in a building, and the philosophy of the school board, the superintendent, the principal, and leading teachers in a given community.

Many elementary schools, because of one or several of these factors, are organized on the platoon or departmental plan. The administrative advantages of these well-known systems are offset by certain effects on the children. The hourly scheduling of classes and the intricate subject programs carried by the children are kept in smooth running by bells to guide the changing of classes. The children go to a different teacher for each of the five daily subjects, and to special teachers in special laboratories or rooms for weekly or bi-weekly lessons in music, art, manual arts, or homemaking. The resulting regimentation of teachers and pupils inhibits the more creative long-time projects and flexible-group kinds of study. Despite the prevalence of the departmental plans of organization there begins to be dissatisfaction with them because of their disorganizing effects on the pupil. Regimentation of the young child limits his physical, emotional, and intellectual growth and his creative thinking.

Many larger schools, having tried departmental or platoon organization, are returning to what has been called the "self-contained" homeroom type of organization which has not been abandoned to so great an extent by smaller schools, or in less regimented systems. In the self-contained homeroom, one teacher directs the child's daily program. Other teachers, with special knowledge to contribute, come to the homeroom to help with special projects. For projects requiring special equipment the teacher may go with her pupils to the special laboratories or work shops. Because the child stays in one homeroom for one, or possibly two years, there is greater opportunity for the teacher to learn the child's special needs and give him the sort of guidance which develops in him security and a sense of belonging, as well as helping him to see relatedness between the parts of what he studies.

CENTRALLY PLANNED AND ADMINISTERED PROGRAMS DETERMINE STANDARDS

The curriculums of the larger cities (the curriculum being considered as all the experiences of the child's daily living for which the school takes responsibility) are planned, administered, and supervised from the central offices. Villages and rural areas may follow well-defined state curriculums. The principals of the schools, who have authority in their respective buildings, are also responsible for keeping the local program in accord with the city or state plan. This is largely for the purpose of maintaining uniformly high standards in the entire system.

The courses of study are compiled for most cities and school districts by supervisory and curriculum specialists, and as a result teachers look to the supervisory staff for much guidance. Teachers may select from suggested experiences those which are most suitable for the local situations, adapting them to keep within the time allotted to each area or topic.

Responsibility for maintaining the scholastic standards rests primarily upon the principal and the teachers of each school, aided by the supervisors who in certain cities help set up objective tests based upon the course of study. It is customary for promotions to be based almost entirely upon academic grades. Frequent testing and promotions are at best unsettling factors in the life of the young child. However, the recognition of individual differences and readiness to proceed to other types of experiences—so important in the child's learning and personality development—seems to be made chiefly on the basis of tests. In the larger cities these are frequently compiled and administered through the central offices.

ACCEPTED GOALS PROVE INEFFECTIVE

There has been a growing realization among educators that the present educational program has not been helping chil-

dren sufficiently in their daily living. This is not a new thought, but there seems to be a new determination to do something about it.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY SURVEYS REVEAL NEEDS

Programs of study are being re-examined by schools and the results of experimental teaching procedures are being observed for purposes of improvement.

In several cities exhaustive community surveys have been made. The teachers have been helped by them to understand the changes which are taking place in their community when the data of the local surveys are compared with the results of similar national surveys.

TEACHERS STUDY PUPIL NEEDS AND PROGRAM INADEQUACIES

At the same time teacher committees in the different subject areas, and in individual schools, have worked to revise the courses of study. To illustrate: A committee appointed to study home economics in the elementary schools of one city made the following four studies: (1) an analysis of courses of study and guides to instruction being used in other cities of comparable size; (2) a survey of home economics practices in neighboring cities; (3) a survey of such practices in the elementary schools of their city; (4) a study to determine the home interests and duties most commonly found among the children in their elementary schools. As part of the latter study a questionnaire was submitted to the children of eight schools representing four outstanding nationality groups and economic levels, to discover home interests and duties that prevailed most commonly. It was found that children participate in ninety-eight different activities in the home which could be grouped under the following headings: care of the house, care of children, food, clothing, personal care, hospitality, and income.

That the situations found in these schools are not peculiar



COURTESY BOARD OF EDUCATION, PHILADELPHIA, PA. (MARTIN ORTHOPEDIC SCHOOL)

Preparing the Meal



PHOTO BY LAMBERT, COURTESY FREDERIC LE

The Family Enjoying Dinner Together

to them because of their size or geographical area is proved by similar findings from studies made in other cities, counties, and villages.

Little has been done generally to ferret out the actual personal living needs of each child and to change the teaching to meet them.

PROGRAM CHANGES ARE NEEDED

It would seem that there is need for a great many changes in the programs of the elementary schools if the goals of education for personal, family, and social relations are to be achieved for these children.

A need is indicated for more practical programs of home-making education in certain schools and districts, and for some form of education for home and family living for all the children. Under personal needs as seen in everyday problems that children have are those concerned with the development of the personality, i.e., personal social relations and behavior, grooming, health and recreation, dress and clothing, and economic adjustment. Under family needs, which include personal ones, are also housing and house furnishing, nutrition and foods study, child care and development, and the many problems connected with consumer-buying and the use of goods and services.

The suggestions which follow may be of value to many localities for use in the kindergarten, in the first six to eight years, according to the school organization, and in an enlarging nursery school group.

Methods are suggested for discovering real problems of individual children and their families. Illustrations are given of certain types of experiences which, if made an integral part of the program, would improve the quality of living in the school, the home, and the community. Definite ways and means are indicated for helping to make the experiences successful, and for evaluating their success from the standpoint

of the child, his family, and the community, all of which have an important influence on how the child lives and learns.

Basic philosophies of general education at the elementary level and also of education for personal, home, and family living are presented for estimating the values of the learning experiences which are drawn from the different areas of living and of study.

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25

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II. Foundations for the New Proposals

EDUCATING FOR DEMOCRATIC LIVING CHALLENGES SCHOOLS

Educational leaders who wish the schools to take or keep a position of leadership in the community and continue to build sound foundations for a new kind of democratic life will examine the entire school curriculum before taking any steps toward making the present programs more democratic. Democracy is primarily a way of living and, if to live is to learn, democracy is above all a process of education.

Each school must be, in itself, a unit of democratic organization, administration, and action. The day-by-day life of the school must help the children and the adults of its community to be more aware of the meaning of democracy in action.

A school is organized in a manner to permit of democratic action if the children and their parents and interested persons of the community are included in cooperative activities in the school and the community. The chief responsibility for such organization rests with the administrators, including the school-board members; and cooperative action, to be successful, must be based on working for goals desired by all persons participating in what is undertaken.

Educators recognize the value as workable guides of a series of objectives set up for general education by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. Concretely stated these are: "objectives of self-realization, or those which deal with the development of the individual himself; objectives of human relationships or those of the educated person which relate to the immediate person-to-person contacts; objectives of economic efficiency which provide for the indispensable material basis for comfort, safety, and even

life itself; objectives of civic responsibility involving one's relationship to the local, state, and national government, and with people of other nations."¹

GOALS OF GENERAL EDUCATION GUIDE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIFE

Persons responsible for developing the curriculum of the modern elementary school follow guides similar to those stated above, using the pupils' needs and interests to challenge their efforts to learn; and recognizing that a child's readiness to learn and the stimulation or poverty of his environment largely determine how and what he learns.

In 1931 carefully thought-out objectives for elementary education were compiled by groups of New York State teachers. They stated that the major objectives of elementary education should be to help every child: (1) to understand and practice desirable social relationships; (2) to discover and develop his own individual aptitudes; (3) to cultivate the habit of critical thinking; (4) to appreciate and desire worthwhile activities; (5) to gain command of common integrating knowledges and skills; and (6) to develop a sound body and normal mental attitudes. A statement of the State Department of Education of Colorado later added to the above goals the inclusion of activities which emphasize the development of personal responsibility and good human relationships.²

The modern school accepts these guides. In addition to mastering the skills of reading, writing, spelling, and grammar, the child learns to think critically, and to employ his knowledge of arithmetic, science, library techniques, and communication in his study and living, so that he may make adequate social adjustments and live healthfully and with satisfaction. In the light of changing and critical economic and social situations which are so far reaching that their influences

¹ J. Murray Lee and Doris May Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum*, p. 20.

² J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices*, p. 120.

extend from national and international to family and personal life, it seems advisable that elementary school pupils should learn fundamental principles of economics through their daily study.

EDUCATION FOR PERSONAL, HOME, AND FAMILY LIVING CONTRIBUTES TO GENERAL EDUCATION

Personal and home-living experiences provide an excellent medium through which the child may gain a mastery of language, writing, arithmetic, and other means of expression as well as an understanding of economics, scientific principles, and the ability to think critically. Home-living and personal experiences, if woven into the daily general school ones, give unity and continuity to new learnings as the child moves from the known to the unknown. Free use of such experiences may help to avoid children's disinterest and emotional disturbances which are caused at times by a too rapid break from the security of the home, or having to meet too many new experiences at one time.

Home and family life education, when it is a part of the child's early learning, strives also to develop a pride and appreciation of the home and family, a respect for the different interests of each member of the family, a desire to keep well, a responsibility for protecting the health of others, a willingness to assume responsibility for one's own health, a desire to share in doing home tasks, an enjoyment of simple home pleasures, and a degree of assurance in making good use of one's money when making purchases. Other social goals include the ability to play alone or with other children, to teach younger children how to play together, and to give and take with others in play and work situations.

Thus, if we are to maintain the American concept of the democratic life, and build for even stronger group living, education for personal, home, and family living should be part of each person's education. This goal is far from being attained.

The vast majority of people are receiving most of their education along these lines from indirect sources such as the radio, popular magazines, and moving pictures.

Education has a double task. It must appraise the past to determine what elements of family life and relationships are worth passing on; and it must decide how they can be best passed on, in the light of new knowledge of personality, and of the arts, and physical and social sciences applicable to the home and family members.³ Adults are thereby challenged to educate for stronger and happier family life.

Acceptance of this philosophy makes it necessary that experiences of the curriculum be centered in the lives of the children and their families and in the life of the community, and that adults be concerned with helping the children learn how to become contributing members of the family and the larger community. Children of the elementary years profit from guidance in their personal and group-living adjustments, and may be helped to understand the family as an institution and to contribute to its operation and welfare. The school can help the child discover and assume his role in his family, and any personal or group experience which enriches the child's life has potentiality for improving the quality of his family's life.

EDUCATION FOR PERSONAL, HOME, AND FAMILY LIVING IS NOT A "SPECIAL" SUBJECT

Education for personal, home, and family life should serve in the elementary years as an integrative force in the general education experiences. It should enrich and help interpret what the pupil learns in many of the school's activities rather than aim to teach specific, complex skills and ideas. Effort should be made to secure a wide correlation of learnings even when study develops into series or units of experiences.

The elementary years offer opportunity to extend the child's concepts of the world's material contributions to family life

³ Edmund de S. Brunner, "Education for Home and Family Life in the Light of Social Trends," *Journal of Home Economics*, 32:5:290, May, 1940.

and of the value of the family to society, as the child is exploring the outer world while still home-centered in his interests. Through experiences with many tools and materials related to daily life, individual originality may be developed and certain homemaking skills learned.

An adequate program in personal, home, and family living for pupils of these years requires that all the teachers, not only specialists in home economics, understand children and how they grow, have an appreciation of the qualities that enrich personal and family life and some knowledge of how to gain them, and use their skills and special knowledges to help children and their parents solve certain of their living problems.⁴

All the activities within or without the school's program which affect the daily lives of the children are educationally valuable and should be used interchangeably. For example, such activities as home assignments, which definitely affect the hours a child spends at home, should be gauged to other cultural interests of the child and his family, and some of these, such as family talents or interests, should be made an integral part of the school life.⁵ To illustrate: The parent who is musical could add much interest and beauty to a school assembly.

Such a program would require that contacts between the school and home be continuous, and that the school work with the children's parents and with community agencies to encourage the growth of the child in desirable ways, to discover child and family needs as they arise, and to help people solve their problems.

CHILDREN'S NEEDS GIVE DIRECTION TO THE PROGRAM

Teachers and parents, and all persons who guide children's daily living, must have knowledge of what constitutes the

⁴ Ellen Miller, "Elementary Education in Family Living," *Journal of Home Economics*, 33:4:238-239, April, 1941.

⁵ Joint Committee on Curriculum Aspects of Education for Home and Family Living, *Family Living and Our Schools*, pp. 409-414.

most fundamental needs and interests of children, if each child is to make the best mental, emotional, physical, and social adjustment. They should know certain general facts about normal growth and development and should know how to use them, in order to determine the adequacy of the educational experiences he is having, to plan new ones, and to guide his learning.

A person cannot be considered apart from his environment, and the child is greatly affected by every phase of his living. Therefore children need food adequate for maximum growth and a state of good nutrition, adequate clothing and shelter, activity and rest, and the protection and care of wise adults. Each child needs affection which will give him feelings of security and status as an individual. The child seeks to be recognized for himself. In seeking this self-ness he needs to try or experiment, to have adventures which are mildly exciting to him—as he calls it, to have fun. He needs freedom to exercise all the capacities which develop as he grows, at the same time feeling security through the appreciation of his group at home, at play, and at school. Today, probably as never before in American history, the child needs adult understanding; he needs to feel the power of the human relationships within the family and at school, and to know that his contribution to each is valued.

Educators and others interested in child welfare and learning recognize that a child's emotional and physical fitness affect the rate and quality of his learning, and his behavior. For this reason, if for no other, the child needs help in developing physical habits which are conducive to his survival, health, and feelings of well-being.

The time of development of the different needs is an individual matter, hence regimentation is dangerous to well-rounded growth, especially for the young child. Each one needs time to be alone, to be sociable, and to have this solitude or stimulation in such proportions that he may best overcome his failures and create new experiences which mean success to him.

As growth and differentiation of interests and abilities occur, the child's behavior patterns evolve accordingly. As he moves into the more complex life of the school, church, and neighborhood from the more protected home environment, he needs to be free to participate in many kinds of activities, first in his small play and class groups, then in the larger school and community groups. These needs constitute a good reason for classifying children in school by age rather than by grade or I.Q., if we are to build toward democracy, because leaders and followers must live together in the world and should learn together the processes of give and take.

CERTAIN NEEDS ARE MET THROUGH GROUP PROCEDURES

Certain major organizational and administrative changes in schools would materially affect the quality of group living in them and help individuals to meet more intelligently their own daily problems of living. The fundamental needs of children are similar and may be met by group methods, although individual emotional, physical, and social strains differ and must be recognized separately. Data of recent surveys and observations made in many American cities have shown that in a large number of their schools the majority of the children need a great deal of help in the simplest daily routines of health and personal care, social relations, and use of their time, energy, money, and recreation.

Guidance is essential. A guidance program in each school which recognizes different economic and social backgrounds of its pupils as well as intellectual differences helps to lay a foundation for experiences in the curriculum which are gauged to the child's own needs and development.

Such a guidance program must be supported by a systematic health program which is cooperated in by parents, teachers, and physicians. The schools should accept responsibility for the development of the child through adequate physical routines at each age, as this definitely affects each aspect of his growth and development. For the children of

the lower income brackets extra rest, free and guided play, diverse kinds of dramatic expression, and a wealth of interesting materials to work with contribute to establishment of good mental health.

One learns to keep well by living healthfully and understanding the reasons for so doing, and for corrective measures. The extra rest which may need to be provided is an example of a difficult learning for a young child. It is especially essential for the child who is habitually overtired, yet he may be the least inclined to rest. The supervision of the child's twenty-four-hour living schedule may be needed to be certain that he rests sufficiently.

The cooperation of parents and teachers in planning the child's schedule may offset the effect of the increased complexity of the school program as the child progresses through it, and of the pressures of modern life as he is affected by it outside of school.

Guided experiences in many types of social behavior are needed. In every school the boys and girls should have informal good times together of which, under the right kind of guidance, social graces are a natural outgrowth. Adaptable rooms with suitable equipment and attractive furnishings help accomplish the right atmosphere, and may serve also as the beginning of a community center. In certain sections of most cities, villages, and rural areas, an early approach to social hygiene instruction is needed, whereas in other districts it may be delayed until later elementary years. Each child, however, should have help according to his needs through the medium of literature, science study, and personal guidance.

Schools need freedom to build their programs. Each school should be an autonomous unit in which the teachers, administrators, parents, and children determine the policy of the school and its curriculum. Educational specialists and others interested should serve as consultants. The curriculum should be based on a social living core around which each pupil builds his study program according to his needs, maturity, and ability.

The school day is more usable when laid out in large blocks of time, instead of in thirty- to sixty-minute periods, to permit each child and small group of children to work out creative projects. The elimination of rigidly rotated subject recitations and overcrowded schedules would simplify the child's program, as well as accomplish this end. It would also make possible the coordination of activities between the different age groups and help the pupils relax, because many persistent problems of children exist today because of the too rigid insistence that the child conform to the complexity of modern demands and to adult tempo.

Where clocks are part of the school equipment children do not need bells to mark off the day into periods. If the child knows that an activity in which he is interested and intends to participate begins at a given hour, anticipation will urge him to be on time. Clocks in each room are educational tools.

Within classes a flexibility of organization should permit the children to divide themselves into small groups which work on the basis of a common interest at a given time. In this way basic skills needed in communication and social understanding may be developed more readily than in the larger class group.

More attention should be given to the food needs of the children when planning mid-morning lunches, the hot noon meal, or breakfasts for the children who have had none. All children should share alike in the food provided in the school, and the school should bear the cost for those unable to pay. In the early years each child should have a hot meal, or a hot supplement to the packed lunch. There should be adequate time also for unhurried eating in pleasant surroundings.

Directed education for leisure time use holds possibilities for developing good mental and physical hygiene. Children should play together in school. Many school superintendents with vision have set aside space for noon and after-school games. Tables for chess, checkers, and pingpong lead to group plans for contests which are shared by faculty and

pupils during the recreation and noon hours. Dramatic play fosters appreciation of each other in a unique way, as do all intramural projects of a social nature. Class and all-school activities sometimes expand to include out-of-school or community projects. Holidays may provide the motivation for children to plan and execute original celebrations. These should represent the pupils' own originality and should not be elaborate shows to display skill in performance. They should serve to draw the home members and interested persons in the community into closer working-playing relationships.

Home-life experiences are educative. Children engage extensively in home activities. In the low income groups their help is an economic asset; in the middle and upper income ranges the children like to work with their parents and experiment in the many jobs of homemaking, especially in the personal regimen, meal preparation, and housekeeping activities.⁶

In encouraging such experiences in the school, even the simplest manipulative ones should be related to other and deeper relationships in the family life if they are to be most meaningful. If experiences are seen by the teacher as tools through which the child's concepts are developed and his needs and interests satisfied, the elementary child's daily personal routines will progress in value from experimental "doing" to satisfaction in self-management. Meal preparation may become the forerunner of a family assembling for the evening together; and housekeeping activities will not be simply cleaning and buying, but a means of expressing one's artistic abilities to improve the home through room decoration or buying wisely and for beauty.

The school experiences in home living need to be made an integral part of living together in the school, yet developed so that the child is led to see the relationship between them and his home experiences. In each school, teachers should study the individual child's needs and help him to determine

⁶ Editha Luecke, *Factors Related to Children's Participation in Certain Types of Home Activity*, pp. 84-85.

his immediate goals and how to work toward them. For some children this will mean attempting to learn how to spend the weekly income, or how to cook two or three meals daily. For others it may mean learning to be more appreciative or co-operative as members of the family group.

The wealth of materials and concepts from the economic, scientific, social, and artistic areas of home economics should be drawn upon to help develop the child's manipulative abilities and his concepts of home living.

If parents can be interested to the extent of taking a part in planning the school home-living experiences, they may better understand the goals of such school study, know what the child studies, and so help him to arrive at generalizations applicable to his out-of-school life. Teachers of the school might work with other agencies in the community to define the part the school has in home-community projects. Such cooperation might help to draw together the personnel of the school, welfare agencies, community centers, and others who by coordinated efforts could directly or indirectly improve the home life and home participation of the children.

Physical expansion may be needed. Schools in districts where the homes are inadequate to provide the child with the most rudimentary homemaking education have a special task in making this possible at school. Each school should provide a physical environment which expresses the highest ideals of beauty and efficiency in furnishings suited to the given locality. A wealth of teaching-learning materials is especially necessary where the homes have limited resources. However, a high type of creative endeavor is more likely to occur when all children have a supply of raw materials with which to work.

One major organizational change which might expand and unify the education for personal, home, and family living is the addition of a nursery school to each school unit. The nursery school unit is especially needed in districts where parents are economically unable to care for their children, or where districts are crowded and mothers are employed part

or full time daily. In all districts the nursery school may be a valuable part of the young child's education and of help to parents in ways discussed earlier.

A guidance and evaluation program, workable for the specific school and locality, should be planned in each school by a school council in which the administrators, parents, teachers, and children plan the school policies. The guidance program that is considered an integral part of the school-community curriculum is likely to be most successful.

Standards for evaluating the effectiveness of the program will be modified continuously as the program changes to meet changing local and world conditions.

CHILD LIFE IS THE CORE OF THE PROGRAM

The acceptance of desirable learning goals, and the reorganization of the administration of the school, the class groups, and the content of learning will fail to produce a greater understanding of the democratic way of life unless they are accompanied by the use of study methods which will help each child to think critically and to make intelligent application of what he learns in his own life.

The experience-centered programs of the modern schools strive to do this. They use for study the problems of the children which are important to them at the time and are interwoven with their home and out-of-school living. The problems form a core around which the child's study centers. Each child's personal problems are studied in relation to those of the larger group and in view of foundation principles which the group develops according to its understanding and ability.

The core experiences draw from all the subject areas as materials are needed: The character of the activities determines what procedures are needed and standards for evaluating the worth of the activity. For this reason methods of work and study are decided by the group, and the skills of the teacher, who acts as a kindly guide, are available when they are needed to extend the thinking in the group.

Group planning results from shared purposes. Experiences lead from one to another and enlarge and deepen in meaning as the groups of pupils plan and work together. The nature of the experiences and the relationships which exist among members of the group decide the part each plays and the direction of study.

Skills develop as desired ends are sought. The use of a core of real life problems as foundation for study does not exclude a certain amount of drill to secure excellence of learning and high standards in evaluating results. A large part of each day is spent in studying the personal problems of living, since they grow from projects pupils work out alone or in groups. Situations which develop because of the school, home, or community environment help to determine the projects and how they are studied. The remainder of the day may be spent in mastering the tools of thinking and communication which give the child ability to carry out his projects and learn to adapt socially. Both kinds of experiences are needed to help the child understand how society functions.⁷

In this shift of emphasis from subject matter to learner, the term integration, as used educationally, refers to the process by which the growing, maturing child achieves a wholesome balance in personality development.

THE "EXPERIENCE" CONCEPT IS BROAD

The "experience" concept involves purposeful thought and action. It recognizes an interaction between the child and his surroundings, inclusive of other people in action, materials for creation and re-creation, and accumulations of the cultural heritage. This concept, more inclusive than the "project" plan of activities which so often means the child's working with *things*, stresses instead the interrelationships among people and the methods by which a situation which is being met can best be made to serve the good of all.⁸

⁷ L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process*, pp. 71-78.

⁸ Cornelius Jaarsma, "Integration in Education," *The Educational Forum*, 7:2:142, January, 1942.

The amount of learning the child gains in this kind of curriculum depends upon the amount of ability he achieves to analyze, choose from, and organize the different aspects of his experience for use. The teacher's responsibility is to make available a wide choice of valuable and suitable materials for study, so that each child may find that which will help him accomplish his purposes and evaluate his results.

To obtain continuity in the child's experiencing during his elementary years, coordination is needed among procedures used in the different classrooms, and between the upper and lower levels of the school. Correlation of the many different activities helps the children of different age groups to share in each other's interests and to develop social skills and ways of planning, carrying out, and evaluating the experiences.

PROGRAM CHANGES ARE MADE SYSTEMATICALLY

The elementary schools hold a strategic position for strengthening education for personal, home, and family living. Approaches which have been successful in doing so in certain schools may be recommended for further use.

The initial changes might be begun in one school or class by a teacher who has caught a vision of and is in accord with the educational point of view and purposes expressed in preceding pages. Similarly, several teachers in a given department might begin a program in their groups. Administrators and teachers in a building or district which is committed to the use of democratic procedures might initiate changes.

Even where the majority of the teachers and other leaders of a group have similar goals, such changes should be made gradually and should be in accord with the immediate needs of the children and the families in the community, and with long-time goals determined by those comprising the group.

Changes should be based on a thorough study of the situation so that larger needs may be sought out and met.

Teachers, parents, children, and others interested in the kinds of experiences being included in the program, should

work together in them, so that democratic action and spirit may be foundational in the purposes and their actuality may be sought.

Care should be taken to keep the program flexible so that modifications may be made as a result of frequent evaluations which reveal new needs of the groups and of individuals.

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41

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III. Kinds of Experiences Which Contribute to the Best Development of the Child

THE MEANING OF DEMOCRATIC EXPERIENCING

The term *democratic experiencing* implies a high type of group life. On its highest level such experience means that the group life is cooperative and conscious and therefore permits workable generalizations to be drawn about it.¹ It is desirable that the child should have his experiences in a democratic environment from the beginning. Freedom of interaction between persons and their environment, and between persons, must prevail if democratic living is to take place.

An educative experience of high quality is one in which each person is free to resolve his own purposes in a manner constructive to his own and others' personalities. Thus, guidance is necessary in child education chiefly to help children discriminate between desirable and undesirable means of accomplishing their purposes. If the guidance is given by the skilled parent or teacher who is able to judge when the child is capable of more frequent and more confident self-direction, the highest form of individual and group freedom may be obtained.

LIVING TOGETHER IN THE PRESCHOOL

A YOUNG CHILD'S INTERESTS ARISE FROM PERSONAL NEEDS

Life in the preschool groups is chiefly for the purpose of helping the children to establish their own individualities.

¹ The Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, p. 47.

The child's attention is largely given over to acquiring good habits of eating, sleeping, dressing, elimination, motor coordination, and adequate personal-social behavior. The child is confused at this age when he is unable to adjust readily to situations and to people because of the many sensory impressions he is having while he is learning to handle himself.

From two or three years of age to six, and even through the early primary years, the great variety of experiences that the child needs should be accompanied by guidance which will further his independence and not regiment him.

As the pattern of the child's personality is established early, the first task of his parents and teachers is to help him build toward emotional security and sound ways of thinking and acting. The child should not be forced beyond his capacity or stage of development. His physical, mental, and social development will determine his readiness to use speaking, reading, writing, and the many other means of expression. For some children even the simplest routines need to be made less complicated, for others, challenges must be devised to promote the best growth.

The three- to four-year-old needs to be permitted to follow the tempo best suited to him as he develops the routines of daily living. For example, no two children's physical processes can be timed identically, and each one needs suitable equipment for play; large blocks and boxes to pile, kegs to roll, and carts to push develop the larger muscles; and blunt, safe tools, the simpler manipulative abilities.

PRESCHOOL EXPERIENCES PROMOTE HEALTH,

GROWTH, LEARNING, AND SELF-DEPENDENCE

The health and the physical, social, and mental development are emphasized according to each child's particular needs in the well-managed preschool. Living and learning as they proceed are a part of the democratic process, for the school day is considered as only a part of the child's entire day. The teacher takes into account the part that other adults play in the life of the child and cooperates with parents

and other trained persons who guide the child and are attempting to contribute to his best growth and development.

The child's school day begins with a cordial greeting by the teacher who makes no note of his time of arrival, thereby recognizing the judgment of the parent in starting the child's day to his advantage. A physical check-up by the nurse follows, which determines his fitness for the day's activities and for associating with other children. In some schools a more thorough examination is made every other day, with the teacher examining each child on the alternate day and being ever watchful for indispositions.

Each child chooses the activity with which to begin his day. Some children run first to the kiddy-kar, others to the jungle-gym, or, if they are younger, to the inclined boards or equipment more suitable for their degree of development. Some children choose the clay, the sandbox, or some other more quiet play. This self-choosing serves to place each child in a small group where socialization can take place with those whose living tempo and capacity for doing are similar to his.

The young child's play is his work and a medium for learning. The changes he makes in his use of toys and equipment indicate how the stages of differentiation of abilities and the integration of his total personality are being brought about, and how he is adapting to his environment. The wise teacher picks up the child's or the group's leads, encouraging the timid ones and at times redirecting the activities of the too aggressive ones into more shared interests. The child works and plays alone much of the time at this stage of his development and growth.

The physically active plays afford special development for the larger muscles and encourage self-assurance and self-direction and the beginning of socialization. They should be encouraged, but not to the exclusion of the more quiet play which may stimulate his thinking and provide emotional satisfactions.

As the young child becomes weary if he plays too actively all morning, complete rest is provided on cots or blankets laid on the floor. In schools where the half-day programs are

used, the children rest before mid-morning lunch, or before going home at noon. Where all-day programs are maintained, the long rest period sometimes follows the lunch hour, with shorter rests scattered throughout the day. Good physical habits are fostered also by allowing the children free access to drinking water located in or near the room, and to toilets adjoining it.

In the music hour exercise is moderate and the songs, rhythms, and stories motivate creative thought. The children run, jump, or stamp to the tune, or sit quietly and beat out the time, or otherwise dramatize the songs. Stories are quieting yet serve to arouse interest in many things. Looking at picture books serves the same purpose for the younger children.

Self-expression and coordination of the finer muscles are brought about by putting on and taking off clothes, and carrying dishes, paint tins, tools, and small toys used in the various activities. Clay modeling and fingerpainting, which are manipulative at first, soon become mediums of creative expression.

The children acquire good mental attitudes and social adjustment by taking part in simple activities together, such as going to the toilet, taking turns in setting the table for lunch, and eating together in family style. The children also learn to help with the serving and to make the rooms tidy after the meal is over. They put their toys and work tools in places provided for them, and hang up and take down their wraps—all of which is a part of learning to be self-dependent.

Mental stimulation is provided through books and manipulative materials, such as clay, paint, cloth, wood, and many other simple raw materials. As many contacts as possible are provided with natural phenomena—trees, flowers, pets, farmyard animals—all of which are experienced with the home as a starting point and gradually extended to the neighborhood.

Many nursery schools recognize the part of the parent in the program. Where this is so, parents cooperate in planning and carrying out the program. The nursery school teacher can help the parents understand their children better, espe-

cially if the mother is free to spend some of her time observing and helping in the classroom. Conversely, the mother can help the teacher to understand the child's needs and the parents' point of view.

Problems pertaining to the physical and mental development and the social adjustment of the child are studied by the teacher and the parents under the guidance of the psychologist, the physician, the school nurse, and the nutritionist or homemaking teacher. Frequently, the last-named is able to help mothers with some of their home management problems.

By observing the teacher handle behavior problems, parents may learn what factors in the group situation or in a child's reaction to it necessitate certain kinds of guidance. Through group and individual conferences, a mothers' club, and participation in school experiences, the mother may become more aware of how her personal attitudes toward her child affect his behavior.² As guidance given children at home is so frequently counterbalanced by many influences, parents must be helped to gain greater security in dealing with their children, and to realize that the care and training they give their children have a positive social value.

Human relations studies similar to those made in the pre-school groups might well be adopted by parents and teachers throughout the entire school because at every school level the pupil's problems are different, and call for thoughtful analysis and treatment.

THE CHILD FROM FIVE TO EIGHT

KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY CHILDREN LOOK AT THE WORLD

The four-year-old is beginning to like group activities and can follow them through, but the five-year-old plays contentedly in groups and is somewhat creative. At five the child

² Dorothy Walter Barach, *Parents and Children Go to School*, pp. 30-42.

likes to make some of his toys and is able to. At this age he also becomes interested in himself as a person and in his relation to people and things, so that he is now ready to venture into the study of his immediate surroundings in an impersonal way.³ Since, as stated previously, the child's play is his medium for learning, he needs to be kept busy with activities progressively worthwhile to him and to be helped to work out wholesome adjustments to his problems. He needs many opportunities to learn social relationships by participating in daily living activities with children of his own age, and to work out his interpretations and descriptive powers when talking about them.

During these years attitudes about health and health habits are more important than reasoning about them. Therefore, the environment is best which makes it possible to experience exercise, rest, good posture, the right foods, and play, so that these may become second nature to the child.⁴ At times other interests interfere with the successful accomplishment of the routines, notably eating, but the impersonal procedures of the preschool and primary programs can greatly obviate these difficulties.

If security, normally supplied for the child by the care of loving parents and social approval, is lacking, grave behavior problems may develop. Fears are always present and, like other characteristics of childhood, have their progressions. The fears which are caused in the younger child by sudden, intense, or unexpected sounds or situations are present in more subtle and more complex forms at this time. Anxiety, forebodings, feelings of guilt and uncertainty may take on innumerable forms of expression and disguises. The fear of animals, of the dark, of being alone, and of the supernatural are among the most usual kinds.

Under the best conditions one kind of fear passes only to be followed by others, for they arise out of the increasing complexity of the child's life and his maturing. Adults can

³ Agnes de Lima, *The School for the World of Tomorrow*, pp. 12-14.

⁴ Ruth E. Grout, *Handbook of Health Education*, p. 12.

help the child have fewer fears by helping him to meet his difficulties actively, by removing underlying causes of his fears, and by helping him meet and deal with a fear as it arises.

A daily program of living which provides a schedule that the child can follow without too great tension, a consistent discipline, and punishments which teach rather than inhibit, will tend to develop feelings of adequacy, of belonging, and security.

The insecurities in the adult world today are especially revealed in anxieties which exist in many families with young children. The anxieties may be caused by such immediate problems as having to adjust to a lower wage or salary, moving to a new home and taking up new work, or the many psychological and personal relations adjustments people must make after a separation. Children sense adults' worries and may express their disturbed feelings in overt misbehavior or by becoming timid and withdrawing from normal social activities. Wise parents will offset their children's fears by letting them have many hours of active creative play and, in an underlying atmosphere of optimism, letting them help make family plans.

The child of six and seven likes to participate in actual work and is interested in many objective, abstract things. He needs to explore the activities in the community and to learn how the neighborhood and city take care of the people. He needs to know where food, clothing, and other supplies come from, how they are produced, and about the adult world in general. In short, his interests are expanding.⁵

The six- and seven-year-old is proud of being asked to help, and works long on an activity which interests him, but the same work day after day bores him, as he is not yet ready to carry regular tasks, and the urge to learn new facts is imperative with him. The seven-year-old begins to be weaned from home and his parents. His curiosity is increasing and he thinks about things beyond his own orbit. Guidance is essen-

⁵ Agnes de Lima, *The Little Red School House*, pp. 16-27.

tial in order to have him feel the need for certain knowledges, skills, and attitudes, through experiences in which he uses them, as he reaches different stages in growth. For example, if the experiences are gauged to expanding ability and interests, eight-year-olds begin to respond to drill in skills needed for their games and work. In school they strive for accomplishment in the quality and quantity of what they do.

Competition or vying with each other increases and, while recognizing the challenge of this for the children, leaders should emphasize also children's use of fair play, honesty, and generosity—to mention but a few social qualities—in their relationship with others.

EXPERIENCES OF PRIMARY-GRADE CHILDREN BECOME MORE COMPLEX

Horizons are widening and the child is busy acquiring many differentiated knowledges and skills during the primary years. Socialization must not be lost sight of in the pursuit of knowledge, for information as well as other fundamental appreciations can be gained through social experiences. There should be a gradual transition from the highly individualized experiences of the preschool years to group experiences of greater complexity. Whereas the nursery school child's social contacts are largely bound by the home, during the kindergarten and early primary years the child's circle gradually widens to include his playmates in school, in the church, and in the neighborhood.

Children dramatize everything at this time. They especially enjoy imitating their elders. This gives teachers excellent opportunities to teach social and family customs and acceptable behavior. Glamorizing everyday conduct of the more social nature may stir young appreciations.

There should be interplay between learning new facts and experiencing—each should motivate the other. To illustrate from the field of health: If the daily school routines provide rest well balanced with outdoor exercise and free play, and the teacher helps the child to note his health progress by checking

with her his health records, he may be led to see the reason for the goals of the program. If he eats a wholesome hot lunch served in cheerful surroundings, he may have feelings of satisfaction, but, if he is led to understand what constitutes a good lunch and chooses such a one, his satisfactions may be increased. If through a group project the child plans with other pupils to make the lunchroom a more cheery or sanitary place, or plans for some other ways of improving the health practices of the group, and helps to carry them to a conclusion satisfactory to all, he may of his own accord try to develop better daily routines and be happy in the assumed responsibility. He may be conscious also of the improved social atmosphere.

Children in the primary grades like to select one goal at a time. For example, by eight or nine years of age they enjoy making a twenty-four-hour schedule and trying to conform to it. Practices such as washing the hands before eating, adjusting to good lighting when reading, and going to bed when tired instead of waiting to be sent, are typically within their range of interest.⁶ However, they must be led to see some real reason for, or value of, the goals, lest they be just one more imposition from their elders.

Early recognition that the child has rights and responsibilities at home, and at school, helps to establish good emotional health for him and for the group. For example, caring for animals helps in emotional development through the daily expression of consideration, affection, and the desire to protect a living thing. Feeding and caring for pets at school, or having a mother cat with kittens, or a puppy, at home creates experiences and helps the child distinguish between the real and imaginary. Responsibility is developed if the child is sure that he is responsible. Conferences held in the family and school groups, where understandings are developed and the child is permitted to voice an opinion upon plans and tasks to be performed make him feel that he has a part to fill.

⁶ Ruth M. Strang and Dean F. Smiley, *The Role of the Teacher in Health Education*, pp. 88-90.

The greatest security a child has is the feeling of oneness with the grown-ups in his circle. In times of stress, parents and teachers would do well to overcome their fears and anxieties and to behave as calmly as possible, thus teaching by example.

If the child is not excluded from family matters when major crises occur, fear of the unknown may be avoided. For example, when a money crisis arises, if it is adequately explained to him, a child often proves resourceful in adjustments; or, if the family moves to a new home, the child is reassured if he is told why the move is made and has a part in making minor decisions.

Teachers likewise have many willing helpers in daily activities which are a part of the group living in the classroom and school, if pupils help plan, thus moving one step further toward adulthood. Teachers foster feelings of belonging in the family by building up ideas of happy home life through talks about different family customs, pictures, and stories of happy home living.

Mothers, and fathers too, can participate in school experiences to further these goals. For example, fathers can visit school occasionally to become better informed of some activities there; mothers can take part in many activities of social nature at the school; they may bring their toddlers or babies to school so the children can observe how babies behave, and how other people should handle babies. Experiences in helping care for the baby at home can supplement the school observations and help the child understand his own part in family life.

In connection with these experiences informal sex education should begin. The child should be given facts and helped to have healthy attitudes toward the body. Opportunity for him to talk should be given so that he may not be left wondering or worrying. The home plays the largest part in relation to attitudes, for there the child, mingling daily with his father, mother, brothers, and sisters, develops concepts regarding human relationships from the more intimate

point of view. The most important part of his sex education is the relationship which exists between his parents. A child is quick to sense that which he cannot understand. Harmony between the parents is felt by the child and responded to with emotional security and happiness; discord as quickly upsets his balance and results frequently in behavior problems.⁷

The patterns of family living which prevail in the particular school community and all the kinds of forces which affect family life there, should be known by the teacher, if she is to be understanding and helpful in local group situations and be a leader of children. Each family and person holds different values, and each should be helped to work out his own problems in the light of his values at each stage of his development. Facts such as these present a strong reason for the teacher's knowing each child's home situation, as many efforts to educate people have foundered because home traditions and values have been ignored.

THE PREADOLESCENT CHILD

NINE- TO THIRTEEN-YEAR-OLDS HAVE DISTINCTIVE NEEDS

Children from nine to thirteen are at that stage of growing up which is still a puzzle to their elders, probably because adults do not understand the many contradictions in the child's make-up.

The child that is growing normally is restless during these years, and moves from one interest to another with great rapidity. He is less susceptible to diseases and fatigue than younger children are. He may or may not show rapid growth, but, even so, important physiological changes are taking place. For these reasons individual differences should continue to receive attention and the child should be helped to adopt good physical practices.

The restless urge to activity brings conflicts with the less

⁷ Dorothy Walter Baruch, *Parents and Children Go to School*, p. 260.

challenging needs for sleep, rest, eating, and keeping clean—the usual routines, hence ones not so interesting to the boy or girl. Bedtime and the radio and movie programs are in competition.⁸ At home, long hours of sleep are still essential. In school each child should have periods of rest according to his needs, and active outdoor play balanced with other relaxing activities. Posture improvement and relaxation should be a part of each child's study, a record of his progress being a part of his entire program of health improvement.⁹

Children of these years are curious and eager to investigate many things. They seem to see and hear everything, and may surprise one with the originality of their constructive interests, ambitions, and the widening scope of their reading. Imagination runs high at these ages, hero worship is beginning, and the transition between the world of fantasy and reality is occurring. At the same time the children are interested in people and stories of people with whom they can identify themselves. They should be helped to place their emphasis on worthwhile heroes and to turn their emotional and intellectual energies into fine personal, school, and community activities; thus daydreaming will be minimized.

Preadolescents' interest in people is usually quite objective. They are indifferent to members of the opposite sex as such. If any attention is shown them it may be on the "show-off" plane, because the interests of boys and girls are almost completely different at this time. Questions about sex, if there are any, are likely to be factual and should be answered simply and not elaborated upon. Good books on sex should be made available to children because they may help the child to see sex in its right relation to the whole cycle of mysteries—birth, life, death, and the hereafter—about which they ponder. A few examples may suggest types of newer books on this subject for children of the intermediate years.

⁸ Ellen Miller, "Persistent Problems in Family Life at the Elementary Level," *Journal of Home Economics*, 33:1:15, January, 1941.

⁹ Ruth M. Strang and Dean F. Smiley, *The Role of the Teacher in Health Education*, p. 114.

DE SCHWEINITZ, CARL, *Growing Up*. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Simply and scientifically written.

ETS, MARIE, *The Story of a Baby*. New York: Viking Press, 1939. A scientific yet simple story of the growth and birth of the human infant, with outstanding illustrations.

STRAIN, FRANCES BRUCE, *Being Born*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1936. Different from others in that it combines the story of the development and birth of the baby with a description of premarital ideals which the younger child can understand.

Fears, representing one form of insecurity, are still present in preadolescence although they may be so well camouflaged as to be unrecognized by all except the more astute adult. The fears are different from those of the younger child, being more related to personal and social inadequacy than to physical elements in the environment, or to the imagination as in earlier years.

Discipline is difficult for the child, if by discipline we mean personal control, self-responsibility, and the ability to make socially constructive decisions for oneself. At times the child will flaunt adult leadership and behave as though he had no ideas about, or respect for, law and order, but this is only part of his awakening moral sense and struggle to become an acceptable member of his social group.¹⁰

Redl¹¹ suggests that the purpose of this preadolescent "loosening-up" of the personality pattern is a developmental one; that the disorganization of the childish personality is needed so that future growth may occur and an adult personality rather than an extended or improved child one may be formed during adolescence. This seems a plausible explanation for the apparently willful casting away of earlier well-learned behavior. Redl also sees the child's identification with his gang as of social value in fitting him to get along with his peers—important in his later functioning as a citizen

¹⁰ Caroline B. Zachry, "Understanding the Child During the Latency Period," *Educational Method*, 17:4:163, January, 1938.

¹¹ Fritz Redl, "Pre-Adolescents—What Makes Them Tick?" *Child Study*, 21:2:46-47, 1943-1944.



PHOTO BY ANDERSON, COURTESY FREDERIC LEWIS

Helping with the Dishes is Part of Belonging



PHOTO BY LAMBERT, COURTESY FREDERIC LEWIS

Boys Sharing the Outdoor Work

in society. By the time he is nine or ten the gang influence is in full power over the child. Time, responsibilities, and personal preferences are dominated by the gang's decisions. Dress and manners tend to be unimportant. In general, home standards are less respected than those of the age group of the boy or girl.¹²

Intellectual and emotional acceptance of regular responsibilities is more likely to come in the years from nine to thirteen if the child is growing up among responsible persons able to guide him through experiences which present to him a challenge to assume responsibility.¹³ Opportunities to use his newly gained skills and developing capacities for self-management, and to have adventurous experiences are his right. A child often has difficulty, especially in a city environment, in finding suitable playmates, so that parents and other child-leaders should feel the responsibility for fostering the best type of "gangs." Church and school clubs, Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, 4H Clubs, and many other organizations are based on sound guidance principles. If the child is led by adults whom he knows are reasonable and understanding, he may be led by means of the gang experiences to become self-directive, adaptable, and social in his points of view.

The eleven- to thirteen-year-olds need more understanding, or a different kind of understanding, and greater personal independence than the younger ones do, because they are struggling in these years to establish their own concepts of human relationships. Teachers and parents should respect this need for freedom from domination by adults within the limits of safety for the child. If the boy or girl is drawn more actively than before into the family circle and into the school-community activities which have worth in adult life, he may gain an appreciation of the effort which adults expend in providing for the essential human needs, and may have increased feel-

¹² Ellen Miller, "Persistent Problems in Family Life at the Elementary Level," p. 16.

¹³ Lili E. Peller, "The Roots of Discipline," *Child Study*, 19:4:101, 1942.

ings of his own worth in the social structure and derive greater security from them.

The preadolescents have gained the ability to reason logically. They can work out their own rules of conduct and activities. They enjoy challenging tasks and hard physical work. They need experiences built on their increased desire for information; they need to be recognized members of their group and to feel that older people have confidence in them and their abilities. Teachers and others working with preadolescents should give much attention to organizing flexible working groups among children in order that each child may have a chance to grow through the activities as they progress.

Because they are inarticulate during these years, children should have many activities of a creative nature to help them express their emotional, physical, and intellectual growth. Arts and crafts of all kinds, shop and laboratory experiences serve as excellent mediums and usually are liked by the preadolescent.¹⁴ Experience in the handling and use of money should be a part of the growing-up process. Good sportsmanship, honesty, and other ethical behavior as well as the acceptance of responsibility are gradually arrived at through having many experiences which call for these qualities.

It may readily be seen that a different kind of guidance is needed for children of these ages than suffices for the young child. As in the earlier years each must be helped to work out his own problems according to values he understands and can accept.

ADULT-LIKE EXPERIENCES INTEREST NINE- TO THIRTEEN-YEAR-OLDS

School experiences of the primary years, which are based upon the child's personal needs and immediate environment, customarily become expanded in the intermediate years to group experiences which treat of man's basic needs in a more general way. Also ideas of life in the nation and in other

¹⁴ Caroline B. Zachry, "Understanding the Child During the Latency Period," p. 165.

countries become enlarged upon through studies in geography, transportation, communication, science, and elementary economics. Such problems as these are typical: How has science affected the clothing materials of today? What effect is the use of the airplane for transportation having on food production? What are the problems of community living which have been constant through the ages?

These themes can be handled so that the pupil learns how people live, but they may also be handled as so much subject-matter-to-be-learned. Often the child is unable to see the relationship of the national, the community, or even the neighborhood life to his personal life. His understanding and interest might be increased by approaching the objective world through a personal need. To use an example from the home-living area: The classroom teacher might discover the general pattern of family diets and approximate food expenditure per family through visiting the homes of her pupils and the food stores, and through her community activities or contacts with social welfare workers. With this knowledge as a background, she might help the children to solve hypothetical or real family problems of food buying.

The same approaches can be used in the housing, clothing, recreation, and other areas of daily concern, and can lead into generalizations concerning economic, scientific, and sociological principles, and family relationships. Major principles, simply stated, are readily grasped by the elementary child. For example, the scientific processes of producing textiles for clothing and household use are more fully understood and the words are given meaning when the literature about them is studied after some examples of textiles, old and modern, are collected and compared. Consideration of production often leads to more personal problems of buying and use of goods, but more frequently the problems are left on the theoretical, abstract basis because of a supposed lack of time in the school program, or because of an isolation of the school room from actual life situations. Motivation is present, if recognized. What elementary school child is not style con-

scious at least to the extent of admiring the bright new dress of his teacher or mother and noting extremes of fashion? These offer an excellent lead to the study of suitability of clothing to use, personality, custom, and climate.

Concepts of many aspects of community life show the same kind of progression in child experiencing. Safety, for example, is finding its place in educating for health. In the kindergarten the child gets a feeling of safety from the satisfaction of his physical wants, and from the support of the adults who accompany him to school or care for him there. Knowledge of how to cross the street safely is associated with the protection given him by the policeman. Later, the knowledge of sanitation and health as protection to individuals is related to the obligation to assume responsibility for public health in the community. Squads of pupils can express their understandings of this through their safety patrol, but they can do much more difficult things, important though this is. They can make surveys of the causes of accidents; plan precautionary measures against them; inspect basements for fire hazards; help set up and manage the day's routines at school; and assist in health inspections and many other similar activities. The removal of hazards to safety in the home is a worthwhile project, and one on which children like to work.

Delightful books on health and safety are obtainable for the very young and for older children, to wit:

ADELBORG, OTTILIA, *Clean Peter and the Children of Grubby Lea*. New York: Longmans, 1901. Ages 5-7. An older book, but a delightful one, on being clean and well groomed. In rhyme, and well illustrated.

LEAF, MUNRO, *Safety Can Be Fun*. New York: Stokes, 1938. A humorous exposition of what happens to folks who do not know enough to be careful in everyday routines.

MARBLE, PRISCILLA R., *Home Safety*. New York: American, 1940. Ages 11-13. Emphasizes safety in the home and yard, and first aid to injured persons. It also gives practical helps for making home more safe.

McCracken, Mary Jo, *Always Be Safe*. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Ages 11-13. A book which is psychologically sound for older children.

In teaching health, concepts that may well serve as the foundation of the projects, excursions, class study, and discussion may be: what growth to expect, scientific facts most basic to health such as those concerned with foods and daily personal habits, responsibility for public health and sanitation, personal and public housing needs, and many community aspects of the ways and means of bringing about public improvements.

The school club can lay a foundation for community spirit and action for the nine- to eleven-year-olds and at the same time contribute to mental health by providing a real place in a group for each child. Committees can ventilate the room and regulate the heat, can keep the room tidy and clean, can carry on the housekeeping activities in the homemaking or other centers, and can guard the playground against hazards and accidents. Committees which carry out democratic procedures for a school's social events and set up rules for etiquette for them, contribute to the poise and mental health of the members. Planning school trips and parties or picnics, and committee work of many kinds bring boys and girls into fine working relationships, and reduce unwholesome rivalry and antagonisms which are likely to exist during these years.

Records of scouts, 4H Clubs, and other youth groups show that constructive community projects are responded to with enthusiasm by the older members of this age group. Responsible contributions to community welfare can find beginnings in school projects which have similar motives and teach younger pupils how to approach their solving.

School round-table talks, attended by teachers, pupils, and parents, should produce practical results by permitting the children to do things which develop that feeling of security which comes from being needed.

At school, eleven- to thirteen-year-olds might assist in nurs-

ery school or lower grade activities, supervise the playground, rest or lunch periods, help with health check-ups of the younger children and with many other routines. On Saturdays they might, on merit, assist in the extended school programs or in child care centers of the community.

Overbusy parents are delegating part of the family buying to the children. Many children are seeking part-time jobs and earning and spending their own money. Here school guidance can help them to live more wisely and to spend more intelligently.

The success of service clubs for older youth has social education implications for teachers and parents of the preadolescent and early teen-age children whose delinquencies today have been attributed largely to attempts to live like those immediately older than they. They should be helped to entertain their friends at home under suitable supervision, to spend some of their money for refreshments, making the home attractive, and for games and other things to do in the home.

VALUES TO BE SOUGHT THROUGH THE EXPERIENCES

The values of the experiences which occur may be judged by their effectiveness in helping those participating in them to develop physically, mentally, and socially in a consistently progressive way, and in improving the quality of their personal and family living.

The following questions might reveal the values to be derived from the experiences:

Does the school environment lead the pupils to seek out experiences, determine worthwhile purposes, plan ways and means for solving the problems they encounter, and carry experiences through to conclusions?

Is the educational program centered in the local community so that it serves to direct thoughtful consideration of personal, home, school, and community problems? Does it call attention to their significance in national affairs; international affairs?

Are the practices of the school made democratic in character so that race, class, and religious differences are accepted?

Is recognition given to the needs which are caused by the economic status of the different school children?

Does the school foster avocational and leisure time pursuits?

Does the school serve as a recreational center in that the activities truly re-create the intellectual, social, and spiritual life of those participating in the program?

Do the experiences of each school's curriculum draw the parents, children, school personnel, and agencies working with the school into a consideration of vital problems affecting them?

Are school experiences made to fit the levels of ability of the children?

Is each child helped to think critically and constructively so that he can apply what he learns to life as he lives it apart from the school?

Is the child increasingly able to make his own decisions?

Are the children helped to enter wholeheartedly into the school experiences and to feel a responsibility for their share in them?

Is recognition given to developing regard for the opinions of others, willingness to share experiences with others in the group, and willingness to respect the contributions of others in the group?

Is each child helped to evaluate the social significance of his experiences and his growth through them?

Do the experiences challenge the children? Do they pursue their study until they arrive at generalizations which are useful in dealing with new situations?

Is each child in excellent physical and mental health or receiving help in reaching these standards?

Does each child take an active part in the different class and school experiences?

Do the school experiences supplement, enrich, and extend the child's out-of-school experiences?

Does the school strive to keep the relationships between the teachers and each child's parents cooperative and friendly?

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IV. *How Experiences Develop*

THE DISCOVERY OF NEEDED EXPERIENCES

The groundwork for each child's experiences should be laid carefully, beginning with his entrance into school. It should reveal as much as possible about the child and his particular environment.

For these reasons the parents and teachers of each school-community will find it advisable to use more direct approaches to the study of each child than has been customary in many schools, and to have more complete records of his interests and capacities. Procedures will need to be devised in each locality which will be effective in discovering how the school can coordinate its program with others operating in the community and with other constructive social agencies. Certain procedures have been found helpful for making these studies.

MANY PROCEDURES ARE USED BY THE SCHOOL

The results of aptitude, interest, and intelligence tests and of the child's physical and mental health status are now recognized as valuable background and day-by-day guides in helping a child develop. They should be part of a cumulative record begun upon his entrance into school. There are certain techniques more subjective than these which also have been successful in studying the child such as: observations of him when he is engaged in free play or unsupervised activities which take place on the playground or in other informal situations; observations of class group activities—behavior in assemblies or lunchrooms or in other kinds of group activities; and experiments or arranged group activities which reveal aspects of personality.

The classroom teacher is a leader. The major responsibility

for each child's program should rest with the classroom teacher as she is in a position to know the child's most immediate needs. For this reason she should be a key person in guiding his school experiences in home and family living. Each classroom teacher should have had some education in the minimum essentials of personal and home living in her preservice study. She can be, however, informed about and sensitive to the economic and social situations in her teaching locality, and she can have an appreciation of the cultural contributions of fine family life. In a democratically shared responsibility for the curriculum the classroom teacher will be assisted by the teachers of science, art, music, crafts, and homemaking as projects develop requiring their skills.

Informal contacts with the child are realistic. One very satisfactory way for the teacher to learn the child's individual needs is for her to talk with him about such things as his vacation activities and the favorite use of his out-of-school time and get his reaction to different types of stories, to people, and to different phases of his environment.

The home visit is valuable. It is important to get parents' opinions on the curriculum and to have them take an active part in planning it and evaluating its progress. The informal home visit helps the children, their teachers, and their parents to understand each other. Through it hitherto undiscovered needs are brought to the surface and beginnings made toward their solution. A telephone conversation is sometimes an effective supplement to the home visit, but personal contacts with the home should be made first. With persons who do not use the telephone easily, or with those who do not speak English readily, it would be a most unhappy choice of method.¹

Knowledge of the environment is a teacher's tool. The environment is so much a part of the child that the one who is teaching him should know as many facts about his home and

¹ Richmond Barbour, "Getting Parental Opinion on the Curriculum," Part I, *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education*, 1939, p. 312.

neighborhood as possible. Cook,² Colcord,³ and others have outlined so thoroughly the necessary facets of the community which should be considered that it will suffice to mention here only those aspects of home living which at times are overlooked, but which have a direct influence on the child's life and education. Pertinent help might be obtained by seeking answers to such questions as: What general pattern of home living prevails in the neighborhood? Do families eat all of their meals at home? Do the mothers in the families remain in the home or go to work—if to work, at what hours of the day or night? Is recreation more apt to be centered in the home or do the families scatter through the community for their leisure activities? Who buys for the family? Do children in the family earn money; like to earn; seek employment? Are many children employed?

The questionnaire is a tool which, if simply constructed and tactfully presented to the older children, may reveal data on the family economic status and habits, and the personal-living and social-civic activities and relations of the children. Questions about the part the child takes in daily routines of home living and in social life outside the school may serve as a great revelation to the teacher if she uses the data as a tool in her guidance of him, avoiding too wide generalizations and taking time to chat with each child informally about his out-of-school and home activities.

Records are essential. Recorded information which is valuable as a foundation for guidance should be well rounded and up-to-date; it also should be definite and concise. Worthwhile data might include general information about the child's home and family, his special interests and previous experiences, his reactions to specific situations occurring in school and at home, and his personal adjustments and relations to other children and to adults. Records of creative projects he has accomplished and of the way he works should

² Lloyd Allen Cook, *Community Backgrounds of Education*, pp. 102-120.

³ Joanna C. Colcord, *Your Community: Its Provision for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare*, pp. 86-114; 148-155; 187-194.

be kept. Statements of the many persons who work with the child and his own statements of purpose and accomplishment should also be included in the records since they are most indicative of his character and general rate of growth.

The total picture presented by the cumulative records is most significant in indicating the particular kind of guidance each child needs. The record is valuable, too, in helping the teacher study the child as he grows and matures, in helping teachers and parents to maintain continuity in their guidance of him, in helping to keep continuity in study experiences from year to year, and in helping to correlate the child's school and out-of-school activities. Finally, if the data are kept specific and objective, they will help to furnish part of the basis for curriculum building from year to year.

The records should be simple and in a form which is planned cooperatively by all the teachers in a school, or acceptable to them. One usable plan is to have a series of folders for each child representing each area of his records, i.e., each folder holds a different kind of evidence. The children can help to compile certain of the records and have access to their folders if a separate file is kept by the teacher to record special problems. When such a plan is used, the teacher may keep a loose-leaf record or notation pad for daily notes on pupils' behavior. Notes revealing major immediate needs are transferred periodically to the special problems record.

The follow-up work a teacher does on each case and the recording of data about goals upon which all are working contribute to having consistent records and to developing among the teachers a common understanding of education and of child growth.

The homemaking teacher is a key person. Because of her background of experience and interest in education for home and family living, the homemaking teacher should function efficiently as coordinator of the "core" experiences. At times she will need to assume responsibility for leading in planning and teaching during the projects; at other times she will serve

best as an assistant to the homeroom teacher. She can help to do other things, i.e., to analyze the personal data records of the children and interview them to discover, if possible, their most immediate needs; to make some home visits; to work with the coordinator of an all-city family life education program if one is in operation; and to serve as an advisor on instructional materials. She can help adult groups also, directing some of their activities, participating in others, and serving as research person in assembling materials or sources of materials for their projects.

Supervisors have their part to play. The home economics supervisor, to mention one of the group of supervisors, should be on call to advise on general aspects of the program and to assist in interpreting it to the public. She should work through the homemaking teacher in each school, and in the classrooms when invited to do so. One homemaking teacher might be allocated to two small schools or to one larger one. On this plan, the principal, the supervisors, other special teachers, and the classroom teachers can work cooperatively on projects. These serve as in-service education for all, as well as being one kind of democratic teaching-learning.

BEGINNING THE SCHOOL-COMMUNITY PROGRAM

Each local district about to begin a school-community program for the improvement of personal and home living would safeguard its ultimate success by making an initial analysis of its most persistent problems as a community.

Persistent problems point the way. A point of departure might be to undertake to do something about the easy ones first, i.e., ones which show possibility of successful accomplishment. For example, community gardens and cooperative local harvesting, so successful during the war, might be continued to serve the common good (and incidentally promote neighborhood friendliness). Sharing the family car with neighbors when going to market would serve to make families acquainted, and lay foundations for neighborhood programs

in another type of community. Playgrounds, nursery schools, and child care centers could be run cooperatively among neighbors, or in cooperation with the school in certain kinds of localities. Housing programs might be undertaken in crowded districts. Programs of education for home and family life should be undertaken as the needs of children and families become known.

Any group activities which involve the cooperation of many people and agencies should work forward gradually from single problems to more complex programs. An analysis of family needs makes a good point of departure, because many of the problems of individuals and of the community are interwoven with the family, for example, the caliber of the local moving pictures. These often cause concern in families which collectively might remedy conditions, but individually feel powerless. When the goals and the framework of procedure are determined, a group is ready to begin the program.

Good leadership is an asset. A person or persons with vision are needed who can seek out the best leaders of a school-community home and family life program, and organize them for action.

Major problems of a community can be located by people most active in community affairs and by teachers who live there and take part in its activities. Teachers are well qualified by their training and experience to assemble data which are brought together by the workers. The interview and questionnaire techniques may be used if they are based on carefully formulated questions about specific problems. Banks, health offices, employment bureaus, and other agencies often have pertinent information which should be assembled before other devices are used. Children can help to make score cards and check lists on which to record certain community characteristics; the older children might make some kinds of surveys. However, the effectiveness of the children's efforts will depend upon the cooperative planning of the administrators of the program, and upon the worth of the undertakings which the children are permitted to share. Above all, the

informal, friendly, person-to-person conferences can be the best means of revealing real needs.⁴ For these, tact, understanding, and skill in meeting social situations are needed.

The superintendent of schools, the coordinator of the community program, if there is one, and the teachers and school staff members might all take responsibility for organizing the initial councils, setting up the school-community program, and explaining the philosophy of such a program to those who are less well-informed.

Methods of working are important. Ways which might be used in setting up committee action are: (1) determine methods for discovering the problems needing immediate attention; (2) make plans for the group for a year or a period of months; (3) decide upon ways and means by which parents and other persons can participate in responsible leadership tasks; (4) decide what part the school can take in the community projects and the role of individuals of the school in them; and (5) determine possible outcomes to be hoped for as a result of the program.

Subcommittees within the school will have other kinds of procedures to consider and act upon, such as determining how to recognize child-community participation as a part of a child's learning; how to measure what the child learns in the informal child-adult experiences; how to interpret these learnings or the child's growth to his parents; and how to record his learning in terms which are adequate and recognized by the world at large.

CORRELATING SCHOOL EXPERIENCES WITH PERSONAL, HOME, AND COMMUNITY LIFE

GOALS SET THE DIRECTION OF GROUP ACTION

The goals which appear and are developed, as experiences are carried out within the school, and the factual knowledge and principles learned which are usable by the child in his

⁴ Irving Lorge, "Social Survey by Classroom Teacher," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 14:40-43, 1940.

present and immediate future living, are interdependent. Desirable experiences will evolve if good planning by the entire group releases creative thinking, scientific exploration, democratic organizing, coordinating, and the use of every available resource for study. A corollary to these standards for working is that pupils must be given time to think things through, and to analyze their purposes in terms of what seems important to them. Through wise guidance pupils may be led to seek the most important aspects of their problems and, after study and action, to associate consciously the results of what they have done to life as they know it. As the children work together, recognize difficulties, and pause to work through them, they may learn to understand each other's limitations and be more appreciative of others' help to them.

An experience or series of experiences in the preschool and lower elementary years will naturally be shorter and more quickly completed and produce fewer concepts than those undergone by children in the intermediate and later elementary school years whose insight has deepened. No series of experiences should be limited by a set time, lest emotional satisfaction, the most important goal of all, be lost. A person is likely to be satisfied only when he has reached conclusions adequate for his particular needs at that time.

Children whose capacities enable them to learn more than the others in the group, or who work more rapidly than the majority of the group, should be encouraged to engage in additional experiences related to those being studied by the group. They might read more extensively and on a more mature level about the same general topic, take more responsibility for leadership and coordinating activities, or lead the evaluation which concludes each experience or series of experiences. There are many other related experiences which children enjoy doing and which have intellectual value, such as caring for the illustrative materials, compiling references, arranging the bulletin boards, and assisting in preparing materials for the project.

The goals of self-realization, of the achievement of satisfying human relationships, of economic efficiency, and of civic responsibility, which are admittedly within the scope of home-making education, are seen as continuous, overlapping themes or ends to be attained through many kinds of experiences.

As experiences are unique for everyone each day, the illustrative experiences which follow can only suggest some developments, interrelationships, and concepts which certain kinds of experiences may make possible.

The experiences may arise from or include several aspects of personal, school, or home living. Source materials for study may be found in the homes, in school, and in the community. Health and safety, recreation and the use of leisure, personal relationships, food and nutrition, clothing, the use of time, energy, and money, the care and enjoyment of one's home, the care and development of children and the care of convalescents, and the arts and sciences related to these are drawn upon to provide integrating experiences for the children, and to help them become contributors in their homes. Many kinds of teacher-pupil-parent planning, study, evaluation, and application of knowledge are employed in making the best use of such diverse experiences.

Study in one subject may arouse interest in others. Each of the subjects traditionally considered essential in the elementary school general curriculum contains much material on personal and home living. Therefore it is possible for valuable experiences to arise through any subject and include many others before they are completed. No one can determine at the outset the extent of the knowledge, skills, and understandings which may be learned. For example, if the functional method of study is used, a series of experiences begun in the arithmetic study may help a child solve personal problems such as the use of his money. A more detailed example from the field of science illustrates possibilities in breadth and depth of study.

Science inspired a series of experiences. Science experi-

ences, like others, may begin informally in the classroom. The alert teacher will pick up a situation, or possibly just a question, through which she and the children will seek answers and draw their conclusions. The teacher need not be a scientist, but she needs the ability to help children to think, to plan how and where to discover facts, to assemble and interpret them. The following series of experiences began during a discussion of the solar system in a third grade class. It illustrates how interest was extended, by wise guidance, into a study which reached far into the adult world, yet helped children learn nutrition principles⁵ useful to them.

The situation. Miss Young, the teacher, became aware that an argument was in progress between John and Billy. John said a starfish is a fish, Billy that it is not. Miss Young recognized this as an opportunity to teach the group something about living things. She also recognized certain social values in the situation, i.e., that Billy needed to learn that opinions and statements we make which influence others should be based on facts. Miss Young said: "Let us find out all we can about the starfish."

Facts are sought. Class discussion showed that the children knew how fish swim, breathe, and eat, but that little was known about the starfish. Science books were consulted but the information was not divulged. The encyclopedia told how the starfish eats, but not how it breathes. Finally a book was found which said that starfish are not fish; that they have gills; but that they do not have fins or backbones.

Facts are challenged. Mr. Aery, the science teacher, whom the children had consulted, raised the question: "Do starfish have gills?" Here was an opportunity to show the children the value of questioning the accuracy of sources of information and the authenticity of the printed word. The search went on. One parent, a biologist, did not know the answer. The children then wrote to the author of the book which had said that starfish have gills. Here is a typical letter:

⁵ Gertrude Marian Young. A report given in a personal interview on a series of experiences developed in Grade III, Horace Mann-Lincoln Elementary School, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

Horace Mann School
551 W. 120th St.
New York, N. Y.
October 15, 1941

Dear Miss _____:

We've been studying about starfish, and we have read your book, "Fishes." We are not quite sure that "starfish have gills," because we have not read that in any other book. Will you please tell us how you know this?

Yours truly,

_____ (signed)

The author replied at length, telling the children that starfish have "gill-like" structures through which they get oxygen.

The larger environment is explored. Interest in learning more about the starfish lasted several weeks as new materials were brought to class. Billy, who was so argumentative earlier, became the one most likely to say: "How do you know that is true?" A newspaper article told of the government's allotting \$10,000 annually to help the oyster-growing industry curb the damages starfish do to the oyster crop, and to study if new products, or the already known vitamin A, which is valuable to man, might be obtained from the starfish. This article promoted discussion of larger concepts socially significant in the adult world, such as: the use of the government's money; the use of the people's tax money; how research discovers new knowledge and how it affects people. Someone asked: "What is vitamin A?"

The home economics teacher is sought. Miss Reeves, the home economics teacher, was consulted. She brought charts and pictures which showed the value of vitamin A and the foods in which it is found. The children learned that large quantities of it are in the oils of the cod, halibut and other fish, and that it is especially good for keeping the eyes healthy. Certain yellow foods such as butter, carrots, apricots, squash, and green leafy vegetables were shown on the food charts to be rich in vitamin A.

The school laboratory provides tools for research. The children decided that they should eat plenty of foods which contain vitamin A so Miss Reeves helped them prepare certain green and leafy vegetables in the laboratory, in ways that they liked. They made butter, carrot strips and carrot sandwiches, vegetable soup and

other dishes. The study extended to milk—why it is good for us; where a city gets a supply large enough to supply its needs; and how it is shipped. The children prepared junket, cottage cheese, and lemon milk sherbet.

The school, home, and community are used. A trip was made to a nearby milk bottling and shipping plant. Simple menus suitable for lunch were planned, introducing the foods which had been prepared. Interest in the lunches served in the cafeteria was increased and guidance in choosing balanced lunches there was more effective because of the preceding experiences. Each child typed the recipes he used each week and charted the menus planned. This helped the children understand the relation between the three daily meals and something of how these meal "patterns" help one to obtain a balanced diet.

What was learned—the teacher's view. Critical thinking was present during this period, as well as the search for facts. The children weighed evidence to the extent of their ability, because of the type of guidance they received. Miss Young and the teachers cooperating with her recognized the situations as rich in possibility for scientific thinking, i.e., the review of all obtainable data before drawing conclusions. Experiences were carried through to conclusions satisfactory to all. The group experiences furthered growth in ability to plan future experiences which the children wished to have. (Eight-year-olds tend to plan in terms of immediate results.) New scientific and economic facts were learned through exploring wider fields of their environment. The original interest in a few facts about a starfish had expanded to include some knowledge of certain aspects of scientific research and of causes and effects in the world of living things. The children learned in the work with foods which ones are rich in vitamin A and something of the general values of vitamins. Certain children may have learned to like and to eat some new foods. By the children's inquiries at home their parents were made aware of the study which was going on at school. Through the menu and recipe books family dietaries may have been influenced.

Experiences may begin out of school. Experiences in school may begin as a carry-over from some interesting community or home activity. They may be found by someone seeing a certain moving picture, reading an advertisement, a

comic strip, a reference or text book in class, or by talking with the grocer, the postman, or with father. A child may tell his teacher about something in which he is interested or about which he is puzzled. An alert teacher will notice the revealed or hidden needs of the child—often they are quite obvious—and lead him into meaningful activities.

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PART TWO. SUGGESTED EXPERIENCES IN
PERSONAL, HOME, AND FAMILY LIFE

With Modification and Evaluation Procedures

V. Learning to Live, and to Live with Others

PRESCHOOL ACTIVITIES REFLECT HOME LIFE

The child's play is a revealing medium of learning and expression. Because all experiences are based on and grow from previous ones, the young child's experiences, in school as well as at home, center in his home life. The child, playing first alone, and later in groups of children, dramatizes home experiences. Pictures, stories, songs, and talk at school which recall home life are great favorites with many children.

Consider the child at three years. His movements and play may seem quite aimless to the older person. He pushes and pulls around the chairs, large boards, boxes, or other heavy articles he can move, being content with this activity. When he is four, however, he begins to name the queer groups of things he makes. They may become autos, stores, houses, trains, or even radio towers, and the talk that goes with the building of them is likely to be about what the radio announcer, the train engineer, or the family members do and say.

At four years those children who like to play with dolls may be found placing the doll carefully in the doll carriage, arranging clothing and covers, whereas at three the doll carriage may be used for hauling all kinds of toys.

We have all seen groups of four or five children serving an imaginary meal on a tiny tea table. This is more than casual play. The children frequently carry through each part of the serving of a meal, using a menu similar to what they eat for breakfast or other meals. This kind of play occurs because the five-year-old child's play follows more definite sequences, and his memory and imitative powers are increasing. Not all children will play house, but those who do begin, by the fifth or sixth year, to imitate the businesses and general life of the

home, the stores, the fire department, farm, or other places they have been. Among other articles foods hold high interest as they are "sold" over real counters at school in a most methodical way.¹

SCHOOL EXPERIENCES MAY INSPIRE HOME ACTIVITIES

There is continuity of interests from year to year. The play of the early primary years is much like that in the kindergarten, if children have freedom to choose what they do. For example, the playhouse or play corner in the first and second grade rooms are busy places. There both boys and girls may be found washing and drying the dishes, doll clothes, or curtains of the doll house, and arranging and using the furniture and furnishings.

Six- to eight-year-olds, however, are becoming sensitive to the realness of a situation, are interested in facts, readily respond to challenges offered by adults, and desire their approval. If the seven-year-old thinks he is being useful, he enjoys answering the door or telephone and assisting in the shopping, in the kitchen, in the laundry, or in whatever his elders are doing. Arranging places to care for one's books or toys, keeping them in order, and many other chores can be popularized by being given school attention, if they are looked upon and stressed as privileges.

The following series of school experiences, which developed from the desire of a fourth grade class to learn how to finish a textile wall hanging they had made, extended far beyond this goal. The experiences which they and their teachers worked out together illustrate the interaction which may be brought about between factual and social learning, and how the school can help children appreciate their families and life in their homes.

¹ Ruth Updegraff and others, *Practice in Preschool Education*, pp. 5-37.

DEMOCRACY IS LIVED BY A FOURTH GRADE ²

The classroom is a living center. A fourth grade class decided that it could do much to help take care of its homeroom. Here are some of the things the children found to do:

Put books back on the shelves and tables.

Check the room temperature.

Prepare the tables and serve the mid-morning lunch.

Arrange articles and pictures on the bulletin board.

Keep the chairs and the room in order.

Make the room look as clean and neat as possible.

How the tasks were shared. The children decided to divide up the "jobs," some of which were important enough to have more than one person work at them. Committees were chosen and plans were made to rotate the jobs so that no one would tire of his job. A leader was selected by each committee from among its members. The leader designated the part each would assume, everyone having a chance to express his interest in the job assigned to him. The group had previously concluded that in a democracy the people select their leaders, delegate responsibility to them, follow through on their assignments, and expect to be kept informed on general progress of the entire group and on how their leaders represent them.

One interest leads to another. At times the class participates as a whole in such activities as singing, drawing, or working on their home work records. One all-group project was the wall hanging which each child had helped to make. With the help of the art teacher the children developed individual designs which showed their summer activities. They cut the designs in blocks and printed them on the cloth after working out which colors they would use. The homemaking teacher was called in to help the children find the simplest way to finish the edge of their wall hanging. As they took turns working on it, conversation turned to the new kitchen which they had been watching get its coat of

² Report of a series of experiences developed by Miss Mary Harden and the author in Grade IV of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Elementary School, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943.

paint. A new interest developed and they asked if they might work in the kitchen some day. The teachers said of course they could, and they talked of when they might go to the laboratory.

The situation is reviewed by the teachers. Before the group met again the teachers considered the purposes which home-living experiences would have for the children at this time. Miss Harden thought that the children needed help in assuming greater responsibility for individual conduct, especially in the cafeteria. More important was the need to learn more about foods, particularly about how to select a satisfactory meal. She had noticed that many of the children who eat in the cafeteria had little sequence for eating their lunches—many eating their dessert first and leaving most of their lunch on the tray. Children's comments and visits to their homes had revealed that many were helping in caring for the home—some of them from necessity. At school many of the children's activities were centered in the outside world—the war-maps showing where soldiers were stationed and transportation of many commodities. The children were also aware of the national and home emphasis on food rationing. With this as a background, the teachers decided to approach the study through these interests of the children.

Previous experiences are the foundation for the new ones. The teachers and the children gathered in a circle around the black-board to get better acquainted and to make plans. The home-making teacher was introduced again as one who is interested in how people live together at school and at home. The children were then encouraged to tell something of how they lived together in their class. They told of their activities, and the theme of sharing permeates the list, which reads as follows:

We have lunch together in the room at 10:45, and at noon.

We try to get along together; we work together on many things.

We work by ourselves (i.e., independently).

We read together.

We play together on the playground and in "gym."

We make things together such as the textile and Red Cross dolls.

We share our ideas by talking in the circle conferences.

We decorate our room.

Each of us brings things for the bulletin board.

The room committee takes care of the room.

We have elections, i.e., each one can choose people to be on committees.

We put things back on the shelves and on the library table.

We arrange exhibits.

We share music together.

At clean-up time we all help.

School-sharing is related to home-sharing. As the children talked a teacher had listed the activities on the board. It was suggested that probably they did things similar to these at home. John said he did, and quickly checked through the list, telling just what he did and how his activities compared with those listed. Janet named as many as John. Andrew said: "Let us keep a record of what we do at home to see how many we each do." Martha thought it would be nice to keep a time record, making a schedule of their activities, but the group did not take up this idea. After some discussion it was decided that each child keep a chart record in his home work book for one week of what he did with others in his family. The chart they set up had three headings: (1) Kinds of Things I Do at School and at Home in Sharing; (2) Days of the Week; (3) What I Actually Did as My Share.

Evaluation takes place after a week of sharing. When the group gathered in the circle a week later, the children had their records and told how they had shared in doing things with their families. The reports showed things done which had not been planned, and which one of the children discovered should be grouped under "Things I Do Alone." After discussion the group decided to make a separate chart of "Things I Do Alone." The two records found below were kept for two weeks without loss of interest.

Sharing in family life is spontaneous and enjoyed. Selections from the records are expressive of shared home living, personal responsibilities carried, and a democratic form of family life attempted. For example, Mary wrote in her diary: "I helped shingle the chicken house, read ads about chickens, shared the radio, read some good books, played with my doll house, played single Canfield and crosswords." Janet wrote: "I put away some dishes, was nice to my brother, did my spelling, read with my father, played with my brother, gave my brother a bath, talked about the war

at meals, and cleaned my room." Vera listed these: "I changed to play clothes after school, hung up my clothes, did my home work, made my bed, dusted and used the vacuum, took my bath and got ready for school." Arthur said: "I helped my father get supper for my aunt while my mother was on war work. I tried to get on well with my father because I was angry with him. My father helped me with my home work. My mother left a note for me in a place—I got it. I played my tonette. We cleaned the house. I did my home work. I helped my father get dinner."

SHARING HOME LIVING

A. Kinds of Things I Do at School and at Home in Sharing	Days of the Week M T W T F S S (Check the days)	What I Actually Did as My Share at Home
1. Have lunch in the room at 10:45; at noon. 2. Try to get on well with others. 3. Work with others. 4. Read with others. 5. Play with others. 6. Make things like textile and Red Cross dolls. 7. Share ideas by conference together. 8. Decorate the room. 9. Elections—each one helps choose people for committees. 10. Care of library table—put books on table, keep straight. 11. Share music. 12. Help others. 13. Exhibits; arrange them. 14. Clean-up time; keep chairs and room in order.		
B. Things I Do by Myself at Home to Help	Days of the Week M T W T F S S	
1. Hang up my clothes. 2. Change to play clothes after school. 3. Make my bed. 4. Get my after-school lunch and clean up after it. 5. Dust and use the vacuum. 6. Take my bath. 7. Get ready for school, laying out books, etc. 8. Take my home work to school. 9. Bring my Red Cross money. 10. Take care of my room. 11. Take the dishes off the table. 12. Going to bed myself. 13. Cleaning my shoes. 14. Other things.		

WHAT WAS LEARNED: THE CHILDREN EVALUATE THEIR OWN EXPERIENCES

It is impossible to know all that children are learning through their experiences, but if they are given an opportunity to express themselves they will reveal, as these did, what kinds of things are learned through sharing school and home activities.

A person feels more a part of things when he helps to keep the room tidy and make things to decorate it.

Boys and girls should do what they can to take care of their own things, as clothes, books, home work book, and toys.

Mothers and fathers like children to help at home, and it is fun to help.

Doing things one knows how to do without being told is one way of being responsible.

A person learns by listening to what others say as well as by talking himself.

Boys and girls may like to take care of a baby brother or sister, if they try.

It is fun to make things together like the Red Cross dolls and the wall hanging.

If you are nice to a person with whom you are angry, you feel better.

Getting ready for school without help is one way of showing you are growing up.

Cooperating in class is a way to learn to be democratic.

Review of activities leads to new interests. As the group summarized the week's sharing activities at school and at home, John told, with a twinkle in his eye, how he had got breakfast on Sunday before his parents were up, to surprise them. It consisted of fruit, coffee, cereal, toast, fried eggs, and milk. Exaggerated or not, this thrilled the others and revived the interest in cooking. Someone asked: "When are we going to cook?" A teacher replied that the group would first have to decide what it wished to cook, then they could make plans.

THE FOURTH GRADE IS READY TO COOK

The first day: Preliminary plans are made. When the group assembled again in a circle to plan what to do next, a teacher said:

"Let us decide on some foods we will enjoy cooking and eating." Suggestions tumbled forth, desserts heading the list, cookies for the Red Cross, fudge, custard. A teacher mentioned food rationing; then sugarless cake, applesauce, muffins, candied apples, and gingerbread were named by the children. Someone said: "Vegetables are not rationed." At once a sort of game ensued to see how many vegetables could be recalled. A teacher asked: "Would you like to prepare some vegetables?" Unanimous agreement was reached. Then the homemaking teacher said that she knew a recipe for vegetable soup which did not require meat and in which almost any vegetable found in the market could be used. Marjorie, who goes to market with her mother, said: "I know that carrots, celery, potatoes, onions, turnips, and spinach are in market now." It was finally decided to make the vegetable soup.

The second day: Planning is continued. The recipe for the soup was studied and a list made of vegetables desired for it. Plans were then made for the marketing trip the following day, and for use of the homemaking room. The 30 to 45 minutes which had been used each week for evaluating the "sharing" activities was not adequate to plan, carry out, and evaluate the laboratory experiences. It was therefore decided to allow as much time as needed for the preplanning, which usually took 20 to 30 minutes, and to reserve approximately 2 hours for the laboratory study. Approximately 20 minutes were also allowed on the day following the laboratory work to evaluate what had happened, so that wrong impressions could be corrected at once and pleasurable ones emphasized.

The third day: The class goes to the store and the laboratory. The group went to a nearby market to buy the vegetables. The children "shopped" at some display counters on the way for prices and quality of the vegetables, so that they would have some measure for judging where to buy. They agreed that the foods at the market visited last looked better and were a few cents cheaper than those seen en route. The purchases were made and the vegetables carried to school and carefully placed in the refrigerator to await the following day. The group spent some time in the laboratory. They examined the equipment, and where and how it was kept. Standards of cleanliness when working with foods were set up, and ways of keeping clean were studied, i.e., paper towels, paper napkins, and aprons were located and discussed.



*Making the Table Neat and
Attractive*



Learning to Eat Graciously



COURTESY EMMET BELKNAP SCHOOL, LOCKPORT, N. Y.

Eighth-Grade Pupils Observing Children's Behavior

The group decided that it was best to wear clean cotton blouses and dresses in the laboratory.

The fourth day: Each "family" group carries out its plan. In a group conference around the circle, small unit groups of four or five children were formed. Each chose a leader and made up plans for working. Jobs included preparing the vegetables, measuring them and the fat in which to brown them, overseeing the cooking, setting the table, acting as host at the table, washing dishes, drying them, and making the unit tidy after everything was put away. The preliminary planning required a quarter of an hour, after which the group moved into the homemaking room and the soup was made. The chief part played by the teachers was to remind the children of the passing of time (the kitchen had no clock), and to help decide when the soup was done. The leader in each group was responsible for seeing that each person was busy at his task, and, at the same time, for keeping busy at his own jobs.

The fifth day: The group evaluates the experiences. The cost of the soup was estimated from records of the purchase of the foods as a part of the arithmetic lesson. When the group met to talk about what had happened in the laboratory, the children said they had had a good time and that the soup was very good. One group thought that the vegetables in their soup might have been cut smaller, another that theirs might have had more salt. All groups thought that the time they had taken for preparing the vegetables was too long so that they did not have enough time for enjoying the meal together. Comments of their classmates showed certain children that they might have cooperated better. A teacher commented that this was another place where the "sharing" they had been striving for could be practiced. A teacher suggested also that another time they might have a more real family if the "host" and "hostess" would see that the others in the group were seated and served before they ate. Each group decided that more detailed planning and knowing what each was to do when going to the laboratory was desirable. All the children wished to prepare an entire meal soon.

The sixth day: The next step is to plan the meal. Janet suggested that the class cook their own lunch some day instead of eating it in the cafeteria. About two thirds of the class proved to be eating at the cafeteria at that time, but the others thought

they might arrange to stay on the day the class cooked. The children were asked to confirm this with their mothers and promised to do so. What to have for lunch was the next problem. The teachers suggested several patterns for lunches which would include foods from the following groups:

- green and yellow vegetables
- oranges, tomatoes, grapefruit, raw cabbage, or salad greens
- potatoes and other vegetables and fruits
- milk and milk products
- meat, poultry, fish, or eggs
- bread, flour, or cereals, natural whole grained or enriched
- butter or fortified margarine

Lively discussion of the foods best for lunch followed. One of the teachers had been waiting for just such a lead toward a consideration of cafeteria food selection and eating practices. She said, "On Friday this is what happened in the lunchroom. There were two menus from which to choose: One was potato with creamed egg, spinach, ice cream or cherry pudding, milk; the other was parsley potatoes, cauliflower, one-fourth apple, vegetable strips, ice cream or cherry pudding, milk. What helped you to choose your lunch?" The children commented at length on their choices, some definitely having chosen the one that had the least number of disliked foods on it. A teacher asked: "How many of you take time to read the entire menus?" Most pupils said they were usually in too great a hurry to read to the end of the list. Upon discussion, they agreed there was no need to hurry because all eat together and leave at the same time; also, that if they read the menu more carefully they might choose foods they liked better. A teacher: "I notice that so many of you eat your dessert first. Why do you?" Several reasons were given, but the children had no definite reasons except that they eat first the food best liked. A teacher: "Might it not be that you do not like certain foods because you do not eat them together? Sometimes foods taste better that way because meals are planned to have a good combination of flavors, hot and cold foods, color and texture or quality." This last standard was talked about and the children agreed that this might be so. A teacher said: "I have noticed also that many of you waste food you choose. If we prepare a lunch will you eat all of it? We cannot afford to waste foods now with

so many people over the world hungry." The unanimous answer was: "Yes."

The seventh day: The lunch menu is selected. After great deliberation the group decided upon a menu which consisted of tomato juice and crackers from their mid-morning lunch allotment, omelet, and spinach. The vote for spinach was unanimous. Each "family" group studied the recipes, urged by the teachers to plan each one's jobs more carefully than before. A rough time schedule for each part of the preparation was worked out and discussed by the entire class.

The eighth day: The lunch is prepared. The following morning the lunch was prepared. (Plenty of time must be allowed for laboratory experiences for children of this age. Critical thinking, careful execution of plans, and emotional satisfaction from tasks well done and well-prepared food enjoyed cannot result from work hurried too greatly.) This experience required two hours. Preparations were begun before the morning play period, interrupted for a short recess, then completed in time for the lunch to be served at 11:30.

The ninth day: Evaluation takes place and new plans evolve. General satisfaction was expressed by all despite the recognition of shortcomings. Comments showed thought. "We all eat everything." "We forgot to salt our spinach but it was good." Weaknesses in group management were aired. One group thought they had not cleaned up their kitchen "good enough," and talked over how it might be done better another time. Suddenly Janet said: "We should make a dessert; we didn't finish the meal." The teachers thought they might extend the experiences one week longer, and asked for suggestions as to the kind of dessert that would complete their lunch. Janet thought it might be a milk dessert because they had not had milk with the lunch. After several desserts made with milk had been named, lemon-orange sherbet was selected to be made in the last lessons of the series.

Concluding experiences. Planning proceeded as in the other lessons. Each group made and packed one quart of lemon-orange sherbet, letting it ripen until after the lunch hour. Every child returned from his lunch in time to have dessert served nicely at the tables. The sherbet was judged "just right" by all. The clean-up was handled with such despatch that a visitor in the class exclaimed over the manual dexterity and sustained attention of

individual children, and the high standards of workmanship in the groups. At a brief summary period the following day, the value of milk in our diets was reviewed and the children thought this was a good way to "eat" more milk.

WHAT WAS LEARNED: THE CHILDREN'S VIEW

About Foods

Vegetable soup can be made without meat, is good, pretty, and inexpensive.

Vegetables are good, and good for you; spinach and omelet look nice on the plate and taste good.

Menus are suggestions of good food combinations which dietitians prepare to help people select the kinds of foods they need daily.

A balanced diet includes some vegetables, fruits, cereals, milk, meat or chicken, eggs, fish, fats, and sweets.

A boy or girl feels satisfied longer if he or she takes time to eat all of the meal selected.

A boy or girl needs a quart of milk each day.

There are many ways of getting the milk we need. Milk is used in desserts, soups, and many other dishes.

Ice cream is a good dessert for children.

About Cooking and Serving

It is important to plan a menu so that you can buy everything you need before cooking a meal.

Eggs and vegetables require different temperatures so that the heat must be regulated when they are being cooked.

Cooking eggs over hot water keeps down the temperature and makes them soft and creamy when they are done.

Certain vegetables like turnips and celery are harder and need longer cooking than others such as potatoes and peas.

One must watch the vegetables to be sure they have enough but not too much water over them.

Everyone must help with the meal if the food is to be served promptly and hot.

A cover is laid for each person. The silver, napkin, and dishes are placed so that they make eating easy.

About Management

The first thing one does when going to the laboratory is to wash one's hands, put on an apron, and be sure that stray locks are tucked away or pinned up.

A pan should be placed over the gas plate before the gas is lit.

The best way to light a gas range is to hold the match close to the jet and turn the gas on slowly.

When one dices vegetables, the work goes better if one cuts them in strips, lays them on a board, then cuts across several strips at once.

It is necessary to know how long it takes to cook different foods so that they can be "timed" correctly.

A definite order for washing, drying, and putting away dishes makes the work easier.

Hot soapy water, hot rinse water, and clean towels make cleaning up go faster and make the dishes clean.

It requires only a short time to wash and rinse towels and make them ready for the next using.

The garbage should be wrapped before being placed in the pail.

Sharing is very important in the laboratory.

About Shopping and Marketing

Where it is grown, and the kind or variety of the food affect the quality and hence the price of the food. For example, Vermont potatoes may cost more than those grown locally.

One finds a great many different kinds of vegetables in New York markets. These must be shipped some distance, and shipping adds to costs.

The way green goods are cared for and displayed by the grocer affects their quality.

Carrots with tops are to be preferred to those without tops, because the grocer cuts off the tops to conceal the fact that the carrots are not so fresh. Carrots keep better when the tops are left on.

Most vegetables are sold by the pound in New York, although certain ones like carrots are sold by the bunch or number.

There is a certain uniformity in prices at the different markets because of the price the dealers pay at the wholesale markets.

The children made these and other deductions as they shopped, on the way back to school, around the circle in discussion, and when figuring the costs of their purchases. No two groups of children will have the identical experiences or resulting concepts, and the above lists represent but a part of what these children discovered as they worked together.

WHAT WAS LEARNED: THE TEACHER'S VIEW

The series of experiences, which extended over a four-month period, was based on teachers' faith in children's ability to learn facts, skills, and understandings, and to become more cooperative socially through doing everyday things which are of use to them and to those with whom they live.

The experiences began with cooperative activities to make their classroom more attractive and concluded with a lengthy study of foods. Each experience was related to the child's home activities through home practice, marketing, figuring costs of foods, cooking, serving, and enjoying the meals, keeping rooms clean and neat, and discussing the application of facts newly learned to their own home life.

At the market, to name a few facts, the children learned what caused the difference in price between carrots with tops and those with tops removed; what caused the difference in price between Vermont and New Jersey potatoes, and the names of many vegetables new to them. They experienced some selling and buying methods.

In the laboratory they learned how to keep the vegetables fresh until used, how little a large kettle of vegetable soup costs, how to cook vegetables, eggs, and milk, and how to freeze ice cream. They learned to set the table and to eat without dawdling at the table. They had some practice in courtesy. They learned to manage the gas range, no small task for eight- to nine-year-olds, to handle knives in cutting hard vegetables, to wash dishes clean, wipe them dry, put them away, and leave the laboratory as they found it.

Through conscious effort, behavior in the cafeteria improved and the children tried to eat all of their lunches.

Parents reported more cooperative interest in family life. One mother said her boy helped her with the dishes all the following summer—much to her surprise. Teachers saw evidence of more critical thinking in planning, in laboratory follow-through of plans, and in constructive criticism given in the summarizing periods.

Cooperative behavior increased because the children had to give and take—good-naturedly or otherwise—so that the products might be ready on time and enjoyed by all. Group opinion disciplined a few recalcitrants, and the final outcomes were satisfactory to all.

PLAY OR WORK MAY BE RE-CREATIVE

Recreation can be a useful medium in the school for developing fine human relationships and stable emotions to help offset the tensions and fatigue brought about by the out-of-school or in-school living programs of the children. How better could one develop loyalty and courage, cooperation and fair play, and the joy in living which is part of America's heritage?

Recreation need not be considered an extracurricular affair, for it has potentiality for teaching. If the individual and group study experiences of each day are made vitally interesting to each child, the work also might have a fair chance to be truly re-creative. Frequent changes of activity and large blocks of time in which to see experiences completed at least to a convenient stopping point increase interests and learning. Exercise and play outdoors and hikes on foot or on bicycle which teachers and pupils take together for play or to study a problem of interest to the school may increase comradeship and the free exchange of thought which is essential to real learning. For example: Inspection trips to survey conditions of house screening or local traffic control are more successful and more fun when made on bicycles. Watching certain kinds of hobbies is difficult or impossible without the "bike."

Flower, hobby, or collection shows arranged by the children

and participated in by parents and friends serve to increase leisure-time interests which bring parents and their children into play relationships. At the same time they give expression to artistic knowledge and ability, and become a source of common interests.³ Today an exhibit of airplane models being made by many children would be in close relation to world interests and might lead to better understanding of international situations if leaders would direct attention to the wider implications in the shortening of distances.

Games that are planned by the children and played at the school parties, or worked out and practiced in class in the home-living rooms, suggest to the children how they can entertain friends at the parties they have at home. Writing out directions for games, planning refreshments and preparing them, greeting guests, and otherwise acting as hosts and hostesses at real parties, constitute living situations in which wholesome social relations may develop.

The commercialism of many recreations, especially in the small towns and cities, tends to pull families in different directions during their play hours, but school experiences in home living may lead into or away from certain recreations. The radio, the automobile, hobbies, crafts, and the basement playroom or workshop have possibilities for unifying family life. The use made of these, however, frequently causes friction between the older and younger generations. In the small city house or apartment this sometimes can be attributed to crowding which tends to cause tensions and lack of tolerance. A school round table discussion of abstract case studies in which one or more aspects of family recreation problems are considered might have beneficial results in children's attitudes at home.

Barriers arising from age differences might be lowered, and stronger loyalties developed, if a particularly fine social experience has occurred at school which the children, teachers, and, if possible, the parents have planned and enjoyed.

³ Ivol Spafford, *A Functioning Program in Home Economics*, p. 149.

The children may need to be helped to see why they had such a good time even though older persons were there. Children are usually proud to have their parents come to school. It is becoming customary for the modern school to make the Christmas celebration center around giving pleasure to the younger children and their parents and grandparents, many of whom attend the party.

THE FAMILY ENJOYS ITSELF AT HOME

Parents can encourage the exploration of their children's potential interests by planning definite spaces in the home for the children's play and work materials and by helping them over difficult spots which arise in their activities from time to time. For the boy or girl to have freedom to use the kitchen to make candy or cake or to get a meal is an adventure if it has not been done often, simple though the experience may be. Having company at home and actually trying to be a good host or going visiting and being a good guest is fun too, but they need to be practiced, as many a parent knows who has struggled to relieve the awkward moments of such occasions.⁴

A good home provides many things, chief among which are the assurance that one is approved of or important there and the feeling that one belongs.

The school can help to further these feelings if parents will show interest in school activities by helping with them. One school which has a Parent-Teacher organization reports using problems children had worried about as the basis of round table discussions. Questions such as the following show children's longing for understanding: "I wish you would help my mother to get more of a kick out of sports." "I wish you would give a talk to our mothers on treating boys more like grown-ups." "I wish there was some way of giving my mother

⁴ Ellen Miller, editor, *Progressive Education Association Evaluation of the Eight Year Study: Materials prepared by Home Economics Group*, Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, N. Y., 1937, pp. 32-34.

a list of movies that are good.”⁵ The skillful teacher and parent use such situations to turn critical thought to basic relations within the family.

If generalizations which are not too personal are developed through school discussion, children become more receptive to suggestions concerning their part in matters requiring mutual concessions.

BOOKS ARE GOOD COMPANIONS FOR LEISURE HOURS

Children read out of curiosity and for fun. Many delightful books about family life are available for children of every age. They are valuable means of creating wholesome atmosphere in a group, attitudes of family pride, and feelings of security and contentment in family life at home. Books which are most liked by the younger child deal with the familiar among people, animals, and events. Where is the child who has not at some time had to choose one from among several sprightly kittens? The way April's dilemma is handled is real enough to hold the attention of anyone, and the story presents an example of cooperative, generous family living (see page 170).

Comics are with us. It has been said that our children do not read widely and are satisfied too readily by the comics, of which it has been estimated that approximately twenty million in magazines and strips are read monthly. Children's practices in reading the comics seem to follow their habits in other reading. They like the exciting, adventurous ones just as they seek adventure over the radio and in motion pictures. According to a recent study all types of story may be found in the comics: adventure, real stories and biography, crime and detectives, war, retold classics, fun, humor, and cartoons. Those making the study conclude that adult fears concerning the influence of the comic magazines on children's reading habits are not justified. They report that many children read good books along with the comics and that for others reading

⁵ National Education Association and Society for Curriculum Study, *Family Living and Our Schools*, pp. 98-99.

comics is but a stage through which they pass. At all events children read them for pleasure, for escape from the pressures of their daily routines, and for emotional release.

To reiterate, the child is an integral part of the community in which he lives. Possibly the greatest value in the comics lies in their timeliness, because through them the child can begin to develop attitudes, ideas, and ideals about the world. In some adventure stories themes are found such as "race prejudice, social injustice, and labor problems, good neighbor relations in stories of the Latin Americas, and an understanding and appreciation of underground movements in occupied Europe."⁶

Teachers, parents, and others working with children should read the comics enough to know their content. Above all they should not emphasize their non-educational aspects, but in objective conversation help the children appraise the drawings, language, advertising which accompanies them, and other characteristics. Adults might enjoy some of the humor they have or be tolerant of the child's developing power to do so. The children enjoy collecting comic strips which bear on something they are studying. Cartoons or strips on family life have led to good group discussions. If the emphasis on reading the comics becomes too great, those who are leading children might find a substitute as they answer the following questions: Have I sought to know the interests of each child? Have we gathered into the school room or the home-living room a shelf of books which are rich in the elements of surprise, action, adventure, and excitement suited to the maturity of the children? Have we provided enough creative activities which compete with the comics by turning the child's interest into such channels as drawing or making comic strips, modeling, or dramatics?

If given opportunity, children will be surprisingly keen critics of their reading materials.

⁶ Josette Frank and Mrs. Hugh Grant Straus, "Looking at the Comics," *Child Study*, 20:4:112, 1943.

PREADOLESCENTS EXPAND THEIR SOCIAL IDEAS

We enjoy those who are like us. A boy, seeking companions of his own age, plays ball, tennis, badminton, or other games with his friends. He may visit with them in their homes. Such experiences are learning ones; through them many things, such as respect for regulations and rules, for leadership, and for good sportsmanship, may be accomplished. The boy has practice in adapting to other people and in working out solutions to new situations. The more real the situations are the more challenging they become because the child's capacities for reasoning and seeing relationships are expanding. Now the kinds of responsibilities and freedom which are based on self-discipline and a beyond-the-self point of view can be assumed. For example, a boy in these years may show his understanding and his friendliness by being considerate of his companions in the games or in working with them, or may show respect to a neighbor by not running across his lawn—expressing in each instance respect for the personality and the rights of others.

We should try to understand those about whom we know little. A way to increase understanding and develop friendliness is to try to appreciate those with whom we come in contact who seem to be different from us. We can respect their ways of living, their opinions, their property, and their rights; by taking an interest in their welfare we can learn to like them.

Social attitudes are learned in school as elsewhere. The philosophy of life which a teacher holds will largely determine the social attitudes of the children working with her because prejudices are learned from other people. The young child is not prejudiced, but he reacts to the emotions, attitudes, and actions of others even though actual words may not be used. He may begin to develop prejudices if others have them. The manner in which social studies, geography, science, and government—to mention a few subjects—are taught influences the child's attitudes toward other people.

Appreciation of people of other nations may be extended by having many intercultural contacts in the schools and by studying other races and nations through literature, songs, folk dances, recreations, dress, foods, the way they make a living, and their ways of building and living in their homes. Probably the most effective results may be obtained when a child works day by day with children of culture groups other than his own, and when mothers, fathers, and friends of foreign birth visit the school to tell about their early homes and customs and to illustrate them through music, art, dress or other characteristic mediums of uniqueness.

Procedures such as have been described may interest persons more recently from other lands in becoming more truly American than they have been, especially today when feelings of isolation and being thought different tend to separate people. When the children of different races, creeds, and nationalities work together on projects of interest to them all, tolerance is at least encouraged and the children begin to understand and possibly to appreciate unlikenesses among people. This is an important step toward social maturity. The class or group of students, young and adult, should be given opportunities to decide what responsibilities people have in group living. For example, all-school and school-neighborhood situations in which pupils have a share may serve as a steppingstone to their consideration of state or larger social ones. Young children must be helped, however, to see such similarities.

CHILDREN LEARN TO ANALYZE BEHAVIOR

Directed social experiences such as have been described will tend to result in greater adaptability, cooperation, tact, kindness and similar qualities in the pupils' behavior, if their attention is focused on the value of these qualities through experiences which are conducive to such outcomes. Pre-adolescent children are mature enough to learn why people act as they do under certain circumstances, and how they

might learn new ways of behaving. Objective approaches to such study are necessary to guard a diffident pupil from becoming too self-conscious.

Approaches to behavior study are numerous. Experiences which include children of different ages and emphasize the younger child put the preadolescent student at ease. Suitable reference books are available which suggest activities through which the student may discover how people learn, how habits are formed and for what purpose, and how poor habits are broken. Emphasis in these books, and in much of children's literature, is on what the young child does, what he needs, and how others act when living with him. The student is helped to see young children as individuals and to enjoy them. If the books are used as a means of interpreting what the young child does in concrete situations in which all take part, the older boy or girl begins to get concepts of the main elements in learning and behavior. Frequently he is helped to understand himself.

The classroom teacher can open up avenues of interest. If she recognizes the presence of other children in a student's family, the pupil has greater confidence that she understands family life, and may be more frank in revealing to her his real problems. If the pupils are permitted to take part in pre-school, kindergarten, and early primary experiences, they may learn much from the way the teacher guides the younger children. Observation of and working with younger children has at times interested pupils of the upper elementary years in reading what authorities have said about the handling of the young child. Such combinations of experiences help pupils see a little child as a person, and understand why he behaves as he does.

The experiences suggested in this chapter are but illustrative of ones which might help boys and girls to have better understanding of their families, of themselves, of their classmates, of their part at home and at school, and of ways of living and working democratically with others (see Appendix, Exhibit A).

A few examples of books which children have enjoyed and which portray fine family and community experiences may suggest other things to be done together.

FICTION PORTRAYING FINE FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

Books for the Preschool Group

BROWN, ELINOR, *Holidays and Every Days*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. Suitable to be read aloud to the nursery school child. The book includes 13 stories of familiar episodes such as birthday, Christmas, Thanksgiving, and Hallowe'en parties, going to the zoo, setting the table, snow, and rain.

LENSKI, LOIS, *The Little Family*. New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1932. A classic for very young children which takes the family simply and graphically through the events of the day.

WRIGHT, ETHEL, and RICHARD ROSE, *Saturday Ride*. New York: William R. Scott, 1942. A picture book showing the family going to Grandma's on the sleeper.

Books for Six- to Eight-Year-Olds

ALDIS, DOROTHY, *Jane's Father*. New York: Putnam, 1929. Jane and her mother try to cure Father's odd ways but finally give up the effort, deciding that they love him despite his peculiarities.

BROCK, EMMA L., *The Topsy-Turvy Family*. New York: Knopf, 1943. A happy-go-lucky family has a philosophy which overrides mishaps.

DE ANGELI, MARGUERITE, *Henner's Lydia*. New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1937. A delightful story of family life among the Pennsylvania Amish people.

GAG, WANDA, *Gone Is Gone*. New York: Coward-McCann, 1933. A picture of home relations involved in doing the household chores. Much amusement is caused by the minor upsets.

LEAF, MUNRO, *Manners Can Be Fun*. New York: Stokes, 1936. A humorous treatment of everyday manners; illustrated with comic line drawings.

STONE, AMY W., *Here's Juggins*. New York: Lothrop, 1936. A story outstanding in the fine father-daughter relationships which exist.

TURNBULL, AGNES, *Elijah the Fishbite*. New York: Macmillan, 1940. The minister's children have funny escapades with a

kitten, but mother and father are understanding, if severe at times.

VAN STOCKUM, HILDA, *Kersti and St. Nicholas*. New York: Viking Press, 1940. St. Nicholas does not forget Kersti, the little Dutch girl who has such difficulty being good.

Books for Nine- to Twelve-Year-Olds

GAGGIN, AVA B., *Down Ryton Water*. New York: Viking Press, 1941. A story of the Pilgrims which is full of vividness and charm. A family searches for freedom and the trail leads them to the New World.

JONES, ELIZABETH ORTON, *Maminka's Children*. New York: Macmillan, 1940. An enjoyable story of happy home life. It includes customs of old Bohemia which the first generation Americans of the family constantly discover with delight.

MEIGS, CORNELIA, *Wind in the Chimney*. New York: Macmillan, 1934. A quaint story of early Pennsylvania life.

VAN STOCKUM, HILDA, *The Cottage at Bantry Bay*. New York: Viking Press, 1938. A delightful tale of Irish country home life and of a family for which everything which happens is exciting.

Books Emphasizing Recreation

BREEN, MARY, *The Children's Party Book*. New York: A. S. Barnes, 1941. When "three to ten plays host" a variety of games and refreshments is needed. The older children can use the book themselves and get suggestions for manners also.

HARRIS, JULIA M., *Visits Here and There*. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1935. The entire family plans the camping trips and excursions, and the class at school takes trips to a factory, the fire station, and other interesting places. (For younger children.)

LAWSON, ARTHUR, *Fun in the Backyard*. New York: T. L. Crowell, 1938.

LEEMING, JOSEPH, *Fun with Magic*. New York: Stokes, 1943.

FICTION SHOWING CHILDREN'S PART IN COMMUNITY LIFE

Books for the Preschool Group

LENSKI, LOIS, *The Little Farm*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. The daily rounds of the farmer, Mr. Small, are made vivid by illustration and brief descriptions.

WRIGHT, ETHEL, *Saturday Walk*. New York: William R. Scott, 1940. A three-year-old takes a walk through the neighborhood with her father and discovers many interesting places.

Books for Six- to Eight-Year-Olds

FIELD, RACHEL, *Pocket Handkerchief Park*. New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1939. Tells of children's efforts to make worthwhile contributions to community endeavors.

HADER, BERTA, and ELMER HADER, *Little Town*. New York: Macmillan, 1941. Describes a day in the life of the Dee family in a small American town. Its pictures make the familiar episodes realistic in a way to charm children.

JOHNSON, CLARE I., *People Who Work near Our House*. New York: Rand, McNally, 1942; also *People Who Come to Our House*, 1940. Give graphic descriptions of workaday activities.

Books for Nine- to Twelve-Year-Olds

ENRIGHT, ELIZABETH, *The Saturdays*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1941. Some children spend seven delightful days doing fascinating things which city life affords. The story is sophisticated and best suited to upper level economic groups.

———, *Thimble Summer*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1938. A delightful story of everyday life with a family which lives in the country. The blistering summer heat can actually be felt, but exciting happenings continue to occur.

SEREDY, KATE, *The Singing Tree*. New York: Viking Press, 1940. A story of Hungary during World War I which makes vivid the spirit of liberty, fraternity, and equality as it is dreamed of in another country than ours.

Books for Twelve-Year-Olds and Older Children

DAVIS, LAVINIA R., *Stand Fast and Reply*. New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1943. The story of the adjustments of a young girl transplanted from an easy social life to a mid-western farm. It is a human and realistic account of a changing world.

DE LEEUW, ADELE, *Linda Marsh*. New York: Macmillan, 1943. Linda who finds herself moved to a new, strange kind of town and home makes rapid adjustments and becomes needed in her community, her school, and her family.

SEREDY, KATE, *The Open Gate*. New York: Viking Press, 1943.

When a city family acquires a farm it results in a happy adventure and an increased understanding of neighbors and of the land.

STERNE, EMMA GELDERS, *Incident in Yorkville*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1943. Presents a good mystery and an important theme—the reeducation of a Nazi-indoctrinated boy to the American way of life.

TUNIS, JOHN R., *Keystone Kids*. New York: Harcourt, 1943. Awarded the prize for the most challenging book of the year by the Children's Book Committee of the Child Study Association of America. This book deals honestly with real problems children face today. It is a baseball story in which anti-Semitism is routed by team play and democratic action.

General Reference Books for Pupils' Use

BAXTER, LAURA, MARGARET M. JUSTIN, and LUCILLE O. RUST, *Our Home and Family*. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott, 1943. 213pp. \$1.20. *Our Clothing*, 1943. 185pp. \$1.20. *Our Food*, 1943. 218pp. \$1.20.

———, *Our Share in the Home*. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott, 1945. 634pp. \$1.80.

BURNHAM, HELEN A., EVELYN G. JONES, and HELEN D. REDFORD, *Boys Will Be Men*. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott, 1942. 477pp. \$2.00.

CALVERT, MAUDE RICHMAN, and LEILA BUNCE SMITH, *First Course in Homemaking*, rev. ed. Atlanta: Turner E. Smith, 1941. 555pp. \$1.68.

FRIEND, MATA R., and HAZEL SHULTZ, *A First Book in Home Economics*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1941. 687pp. \$1.80.

KINYON, KATE, and L. THOMAS HOPKINS, *Junior Home Problems*, rev. ed. Chicago: Sanborn, 1938. 310pp. \$1.12. *Junior Clothing*, rev. ed., 1937. 264pp. \$1.16. *Junior Foods*, rev. ed., 1937. 362pp. \$1.16.

LATHEM, HELEN H., FRANCES S. MILLER, *Experiences in Homemaking*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1941. 503pp. \$1.80.

PRICE, HAZEL HUSTON, *Living with the Family*. Boston: Little, Brown, 1942. 62pp. \$44.

- TRILLING, MABEL B., FLORENCE WILLIAMS, and GRACE G. REEVES, *Problems in Home Economics*. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott, 1939. 707pp. \$1.68.

RECOMMENDED READINGS

- ARLITT, ADA HART, *Family Relationships*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1942. 277pp.
- THE ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington, D. C. *Bulletin: Four and Five Year Olds at School*, 1943. 28pp.
- GESELL, ARNOLD, and FRANCES L. ILG, *Infant and Child in the Culture of Today*. New York: Harper, 1943. 399pp.
- GROVES, ERNEST R., EDNA SKINNER, and SADIE SWENSON, *The Family and Its Relationships*. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott, 1941. 585pp.
- HAMBIDGE, GOVE, *Six Rooms Make a World*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938. 338pp.
- KELIHER, ALICE, *Life and Growth*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1938. 245pp.
- MURPHY, LOIS B., BARBARA BIBER, IRMA S. BLACK, and LOUISE P. WOODCOCK, *Child Life in School: A Study of the Seven-Year-Old Group*. New York: Dutton, 1942. 658pp.
- NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction; the National Council of Teachers of English; and the Society for Curriculum Study: *Americans All—Studies in Intercultural Education*. Washington, D. C., 1942. 385pp.
- SHERER, LORRAINE, *Their First Years at School*. Los Angeles: County Board of Education, Los Angeles County, California, 1939. 581pp.
- SPAFFORD, IVOL, *A Functioning Program of Home Economics*, New York: John Wiley, 1940. 469pp.
- STRAIN, FRANCES BRUCE, *Sex Guidance in Family Life Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1942. 340pp.
- , *Your Child: His Family and Friends*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1943. 210pp.
- UPDEGRAFF, RUTH, and OTHERS, *Practice in Preschool Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938. 408pp.

VI. Food for Pleasure, Health, and Sociability

WE LEARN TO KNOW AND USE FOODS IN THE PRIMARY YEARS

Cooking is an adventurous experience for young and old. Teachers have recognized its charm for very young children, and activities such as making applesauce, muffins, vegetable soup, and other simple dishes have been used extensively in the primary years to make other learnings realistic. For example, in a study of grains, children have ground wheat, compared brown and white flour, made muffins, and eaten them. There is an aesthetic value in muffins in that they are a nice color and smell and taste good when they are well made. The children like the excitement of mixing them and working with the pans, dishes, and foods. Afterward they enjoy recalling what they have done and talking about the entire experience.

Such experiences are of value as adventures in that the child satisfies an urge to make something. He is pleased when the results are acceptable to adults. Such experiences also teach the child about the material world in which he lives and help develop his muscular coordination and manipulative ability and powers of expression in speech and writing.

Experiences with foods might be more meaningful to the child if they were a part of his daily life at school. A study of many aspects of food may help him with his social adjustments and help him know why we eat different kinds of foods.

FOOD EXPERIENCES ARE IN EVERYDAY SITUATIONS

The primary grade child is aware of many activities concerned with foods. He may be in or near the kitchen at home

when meals are prepared, and wish to help set the table for meals. Eating in the school cafeteria, making investigative trips to the school kitchen, and going with his parents to restaurants show him ways food is prepared and served in public. Holidays may be approaching, and foods may be considered as one way to express hospitality. The pupils may grow vegetables at home or at school, and make some of them ready for eating.

Story and picture books like those below tell of growing foods, of families having their meals at home, and of picnics, and the group may be inspired by them to have a similar experience at school.

Books for the Seven-, Eight-, and Nine-Year-Olds

CHARTERS, SMILEY, and RUTH STRANG, *Through the Year*. New York: Macmillan, 1941. Ages 6-7. The stories are about foods, play, hikes, bonfires, the hot lunch, and other healthful, happy living.

———, *All Through the Day*. New York: Macmillan, 1941. Ages 8-9. The stories carry the child through the usual events of his day from getting off to school to rising next morning refreshed and happy.

CRABTREE, EUNICE K., LA VERNE WALKER, and DOROTHY CANFIELD, *Under the Roof*. New York: University Publishing Company, 1941. Ages 7-8-9. The stories center around foods: eating, picking apples, going to the store for milk and eggs, keeping foods fresh, and choosing favorite foods.

HALLADAY, ANNE, *Pigtail Twins*. New York, Friendship Press, 1943. Ages 7-8. A delightful story of the American way of life as seen by a third grade group and their mothers.

The cooking experiences of younger children should be filled with social meaning and cause the child to relate new ideas with what he knows. Experiences similar to the following illustration may be carried out in a classroom or in a homemaking room, although in this instance both rooms were used.

ENTERTAINING OUR NEIGHBORS AT THANKSGIVING

(An Example of Cooking for a Social Purpose)

Ages 6-8

A NARRATIVE ACCOUNT OF THE UNIT

The first day (Wednesday). Thanksgiving Day was approaching. The second grade class wished to have a happy time together because Thanksgiving is a special time for giving thanks and having a home-day. The children decided to ask the first grade group to a party. Tuesday of the following week at 10:20 o'clock was the time decided upon so that preparations for the party could be made on Monday.

The second day (Thursday). A committee was chosen to invite the first grade group. After the invitation had been accepted, the children made plans for entertaining their guests. Plans included a story of Thanksgiving (told by the puppets), songs, and refreshments. After discussion of many things good to eat, all agreed that lemonade and cookies would be right to have because they could take the place of the mid-morning tomato juice and crackers and not spoil anyone's lunch.

The third day (Friday). The group voted to make ginger cookies like the fourth grade had made because they were so good. The homemaking teacher planned to help them make the cookies on Monday at nine o'clock, and the lemonade on Tuesday at the same time. She helped them select a recipe for the cookies, which was printed on the blackboard and studied. The classroom teacher and the homemaking teacher took the children to the homemaking room where they selected bowls and other equipment to use later, and talked about the recipe. This is it.

Ginger Cookies

Measure one cup of fat, place it in a large bowl, and stir it with a wooden spoon until it is soft. Measure one cup of brown sugar, add it to the fat in the bowl, and stir until the mixture is well creamed. Add one cup of molasses and one teaspoon of baking soda to which you have added two tablespoons of hot water. Into a second bowl measure four cups of sifted flour, one-half teaspoon of salt, one teaspoon of ginger, and one teaspoon of cinnamon. Stir these well, then sift them into the molasses, sugar, fat, and

soda mixture. Cut the two mixtures together until they are well blended. A fifth cup of sifted flour may be made ready, if necessary, and added gradually until the dough is stiff enough to pick up in balls. Drop teaspoonfuls of the dough on a greased baking sheet, and pat them into cookies one-fourth-inch thick. The cookies may be shaped as stars, animals, little men, or anything one wishes. Bake the cookies in a moderate oven twelve to fourteen minutes, or until they are brown and crisp. Cool them on a wire cake rack.

The fourth day (Monday). The class went to the homemaking room where they grouped themselves around two large low tables. On each table was a tray containing the supplies for the cookies and tools for making them. Each child in the group took his turn in measuring, then in mixing the cookies. Each group had the help of a teacher when the stirring became difficult. The dough was divided so that each child had a portion which he shaped and patted into several cookies on his corner of the baking tin. Round, star, shapeless, and man-shaped cookies appeared, but all were good to taste. All the cookies (except one to taste) were placed in a large bowl until the following day, and everyone helped clean up the kitchen.

The fifth day (Tuesday). A committee made the lemonade in the homemaking room and placed the cookies on trays with paper napkins, while others made ready the puppets, booth, serving table, and chairs in the homeroom. The welcoming committee helped greet the visitors, among whom were some mothers. The party was over by eleven-thirty; everyone seemed to have a nice time. After the party a clean-up committee helped return dishes to the homemaking room and wash them; others put the homeroom in order.

The sixth day (Wednesday). A member of the first grade group came to tell the class what a very good time they had had the day before. All the children wished to talk about the good time at the party.

What the children said: "The lemonade and cookies were good." "My mamma liked the story." "I liked the story but Jean forgot in one place." "Miss S. liked the song." "We are making the ginger cookies at my home on Saturday."

Things the teacher noted:

Improvement of social attitudes and behavior. Ann and James

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soda mixture. Cut the two mixtures together until they are well blended. A fifth cup of sifted flour may be made ready, if necessary, and added gradually until the dough is stiff enough to pick up in balls. Drop teaspoonfuls of the dough on a greased baking sheet, and pat them into cookies one-fourth-inch thick. The cookies may be shaped as stars, animals, little men, or anything one wishes. Bake the cookies in a moderate oven twelve to fourteen minutes, or until they are brown and crisp. Cool them on a wire cake rack.

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What the children said: "The lemonade and cookies were good." "My mamma liked the story." "I liked the story but Jean forgot in one place." "Miss S. liked the song." "We are making the ginger cookies at my home on Saturday."

Things the teacher noted:

Improvement of social attitudes and behavior. Ann and James

were less shy than usual and carried through their parts very well. As a group the children had remembered what to do with a minimum of reminding. The committees also remembered what to do and were helpful. The children accepted the standard of eating refreshment foods which would not spoil their appetites for regular meals.

Improved skills. The cookies were made better than those which had been made in earlier experiences. Measuring was more accurately done. The children remembered the recipe well enough to follow through. The serving was better.

Things the children liked:

The children liked having the party. They liked to serve themselves from the large dishes. They liked the food they prepared; to work in the laboratory; to handle the food. They liked the "feel" of the cookie dough as they worked and the crunch of the crisp cookies.

NUTRITION STUDY HOLDS ADVENTURES

Children of six to eight tend to be finicky about their food; some seem never to get enough to eat, while others are not as interested in meal time as they are in many other things. The preadolescent has much the same attitude, i.e., there is a great variation in meal-time interest. Most children are, however, interested in things which grow, including themselves, and experiences with foods may bring home to them the differences adequate and poor diets make in one's growth, if the study is made vivid or real.

A child in the primary years should be busy living healthfully rather than talking a great deal about health, but nutrition facts can be taught when situations similar to these occur in the lives of the children: First teeth come out and new ones are coming in. The talk during the mid-morning lunch turns to what is eaten at other meals. The number of absences is high because some children have colds or minor indispositions, or an epidemic is rampant. A child may state that he doesn't like his milk, cereal, or other foods he should eat. A new baby arrives at a child's home, and talk turns to what a baby eats.

School experiences expand understanding. The very young children like to bring pets from home and watch them grow. Conversation about what they eat may lead to comparisons such as: "The rabbit eats carrots and lettuce as we do" or "Chicks eat grain and we eat our cereals" or "The kitten likes his milk." The teacher does well to extend and emphasize such ideas at every opportunity.

Each classroom should at least have a printed daily food guide that is stated simply. A better plan might be for each child to have a copy of it for his health record folder so that he might check his own eating habits and, in conference with his teacher, decide whether he is doing his part to achieve maximum rather than minimum health.

The "Daily Food Guide" and a "Health Schedule for Twenty-four Hours" might take the place of height and weight charts which have a place but do not tell the entire story about his health which the child needs to know. The twenty-four-hour schedule for living should be compiled by the children themselves, with the teacher's help, basic health principles being used as a guide. In this way only can a daily living plan be made suitable for every age group and for each individual child.

Moving pictures on nutrition are being released and have great appeal. They show how joyous a thing health is, and how scientific methods have proved the effect adequate food, or the lack of it, has on animals and people.

Animal feeding experiments can be carried on in the classroom, but need careful planning, executing, and checking of results against goals which the children have set up. White rats are favorite test animals, although pigeons and guinea pigs have been used successfully. Rural children, having closer contact with growing animals, can contribute additional knowledge about diets, but the controlled white rat experiments show the results of inadequate feeding quickly. For example: putting "Tom" on a wholewheat bread and tea diet, "Dick" on a wholewheat bread, milk, and vegetable diet, and "Harry" on "Dick's" diet plus cod-liver oil tells the story of

the value of cod-liver oil in a few weeks. When the principles are proved, the children need little help in drawing their conclusions and in telling them to others. Children of the intermediate years are especially interested in the animal experiments and like to make graphs which show the gains or losses of the rats and explain them to the younger children.

Extension of nutrition study should be gradual. Many other experiments which link natural and general science with nutrition have been worked out by skilled scientists in teaching nutrition to older elementary children. They help to explain the more intricate aspects of the uses of the different food elements.

The most effective experiences in nutrition study are those which help people get results from healthful diets in meals which they like. With something to eat as a goal the children of the upper primary groups like to experiment with foods. It is as much fun for the eight- to ten-year-olds to make Wheatena and serve it with a colorful fruit as a breakfast dish as it is to pop corn. The same principle can be taught, i.e., a high temperature and moisture are needed to soften the cellulose of the grain, expand the starch particles, and develop the flavor of the cereal. Also, such a dish makes the core of a good breakfast, is liked by most children, and may be related to eating three good meals daily. Children in these years should learn to prepare simple dishes and emphasize their health aspects, nicety of table service, and courtesy.

When elementary pupils are experiencing their first social occasions at school or at home, emphasis should be placed on originality and simplicity of entertainment and refreshments. Both should be suitable to the age of the children, to the occasion, and to the season of the year, and be planned with economy in time and money. Experiences should include more learning how to plan, purchase, prepare, and serve everyday meals than preparing refreshments for parties.

Whether the table is laid in the kitchen, dinette, or more formal dining room, the meal should be a restful experience, as unhurried as possible, and accompanied by conversation

suited to relax tensions and increase sociability. This goal is a desirable one for child and adult, and practice to attain it cannot begin too early.

Assembling a meal and eating it with friends, no matter how simple the repast, is a rounded experience. The series of experiences of Grade IV (pages 85-92) illustrate this.

FOOD STUDY BECOMES MORE COMPLEX IN INTERMEDIATE YEARS

Horizons widen for the child in the intermediate years, and the social aspects of foods and dining take on new interest. Class study may include aspects of refrigeration and other ways of temporary and long-time preservation of food. Questions on the shipping and marketing of food may arise through a consideration of transportation or new scientific developments. In rural or village areas crops must be harvested from gardens and preserved for winter use. Special school occasions excite interest in preparing refreshments. Helping at home begins to include shopping for foods, preparing lunches or other meals, feeding younger children, and packing lunches to be carried to school. Responsibility for buying foods makes the child aware of the cost of them. Economic stress in some families makes the child aware of family concern about the rising cost of food or its increasing importance in the family expenditures. Radio and screen programs and news items direct attention to economic and health aspects of food.

School experiences with foods should help pupils gain knowledge about foods, standards by which to select and use them, and an appreciation of their aesthetic contribution to daily life.

School experiences in these years should emphasize learning how to cook well and to produce quality in the finished product, because the children like to experiment and are interested in details. Skills leading to a good product are of value to the children when they see the results of poor procedures.

They believe fully in the old saying, "the proof of the pudding is in the eating," and do not object to the routines of the kitchen, including dishwashing, if they are a means to a desired end and the tasting is to their liking.

CORRELATION BETWEEN AREAS OF STUDY IS DESIRABLE

Attention during the cooking experiences should not be confined entirely to learning to cook. Group experiments can illustrate facts and principles learned in other studies, thus cementing what is learned; i.e., bread may be made in foods study while yeast is being studied in biology; or dehydrated foods may be prepared while the increased use of such foods is being studied from economic standpoints in geography or other classes. Many kinds of correlated experiences help children see the relation of foods and dining to other aspects of living. Dishes after the style of Colonial times have been prepared and served during a study of life in those days. A new moving picture shows this vividly. It shows how food was prepared over open fires in Colonial days and other activities in the day of a Colonial family (see reference on page 172). A series of Mexican dishes often rounds out a study of that country. These and similar correlations have their value. A more real liking of our neighbors, and a greater appreciation of their cultural mores might be developed by having first or second generation Americans demonstrate some of their delightful variations in food combinations, cookery processes, utensils used, and festival customs which reveal much of their family philosophies. One school held an old-home festival for this purpose. Mothers came in native dress. The teacher borrowed costumes of other nations and early America for the children to use; pictures and household objects from the local museum illustrated the plays and foods which the children had prepared.

In many districts families still use recipes and cooking methods of other countries. Using some of these in connection with a lesson or series of lessons serves to dignify the

child's home life, removes feelings of being "different," and develops fine school-home relationships. A study of the favorite dishes of the South, of New England, of Pennsylvania, and other sections of our country may serve a similar purpose by showing the great mobility of the American people.

NUTRITION STUDY IS CONTINUOUS

Nutrition study should be used only to help the children interpret actual meals which are prepared or selected by them. Teachers should work out with the children a simple meal-recording plan so that each can see the study in relation to his own eating habits.

Various devices simplify and make interesting this process. The food cards used earlier to show food combinations can now have enlarged meaning because each has the nutritive values of the food recorded on it. Nutritive value scales showing comparisons in calories, weights, and amounts or "shares" (presented by Mary Swartz Rose in *Foundations of Nutrition*) are now available in colored cardboard shafts. They help the child to visualize quickly the planned or actually prepared meals.

THE COST OF FOODS IS STUDIED

The study of economic aspects of food continues to parallel its preparation. Preparing dishes and complete meals according to a child's own family food budget requires art and ingenuity.

It has been shown how children nine and ten years of age toured the markets of the neighborhood when buying foods to cook, and selected them according to freshness, size, and cost. They also made comparative studies by purchasing samples of the same article; for example, the children bought grapefruit at different prices, later weighing the fruit and comparing values received. Similar comparisons can be made by older children with the meals they prepare, serve, and evaluate.

When a meal is prepared its cost should be figured no mat-

ter how simple the repast, because it is the habit of seeing cost in relation to the nutritive values which is important. A child may learn that a very inexpensive meal may be good both to look at and to taste, and also satisfy one's hunger.

What an opportunity teachers have to combine nutrition and arithmetic study with the art of preparing and serving tempting foods! In most school districts a practical approach to food study based on the financial status of their families is essential. It is natural for a child to conceal the fact when school experiences are beyond his level of living, and so teachers often set too elaborate standards.

COMMUNITY PRACTICES MAY BE IMPROVED

A composite picture of food practices in the locality will help the teacher discover over-all family needs. A questionnaire method of inquiry seldom reveals most important facts, but they may be obtained through conferences with mothers in home visits or, at school, through casual or planned conversations with the children. A child may tell of making part or all of the family food purchases—and on an appallingly small budget.

A sixth grade class in a comparatively conservative school had a series of experiences which illustrate two teachers' effort to guide pupils toward better health through better eating practices.

A SIXTH GRADE CLASS PREPARES LUNCH

The situation. Discipline cases arising during or immediately after the noon hour became so numerous that Mr. Green of School B investigated the noon-time habits of the ring leaders in the disturbances. It was found that most of the troublemakers were boys in Miss Griffith's room, that they were existing on candy lunches and indulging in rowdy play in the streets during the noon hour. Others of the class, boys as well as girls, had full responsibility for preparing lunch at home for themselves and younger children, because their mothers were at work. The school is in a mill district and has no lunch room.

Preliminary plans are made. A council was held by Mr. Green, Miss Griffith, and Miss Young, the homemaking teacher. Although this school does not schedule homemaking units below the seventh grade, the situation demanded action. Adjustments were made so that the homemaking laboratory was available during the hour before noon.

The class is consulted. The children were asked if they would like to cook—to prepare their lunches and eat them about noon, or, if they had home responsibilities, to carry home what they made so that it could be shared with others in the family. The children thought it might be fun to cook.

Final plans are made. It was decided that dishes would have to be made which could be carried safely and could be reheated before serving. Containers would be returned after noon.

Sandwiches could be brought from home and eaten with the rest of the lunch.

Each pupil would contribute five cents a day to help with the expenses. Miss Young said that they had five dollars with which to start.

The group wrote a note to tell the mothers about the plan, and each child carried a copy home for mother's signature of approval of the plan.

The plan is approved and the project launched. The mothers approved the plan. A few children contributed ten cents, showing that they had money for lunch.

Miss Young arranged for Mr. Green to be present at the first laboratory meeting as this is a rough neighborhood where the unexpected happens. The money was counted, the five dollars was contributed, market slips which gave neighborhood prices were studied, and a card file which contained recipes with price notations was examined critically. A week's menus were planned roughly at the first meeting, and a recipe selected for the first cooking period.

The class divided itself into five groups, each group in turn choosing a chairman. The five chairmen would serve for a week and be responsible with Miss Young, Mr. Green, and Miss Griffith for the money and the shopping. Shopping was done by the buying committee of the week as the children came to school or after school on the preceding day. Each committee handled the money for the week it purchased the foods.

After the second day Mr. Green attended the class only when invited to do so, for there was no need for external discipline.

The character of the lunches. As the term advanced, the search for new inexpensive recipes increased. Recipe boxes were made in shop class, and were filled with favorite recipes having cost notations like Miss Young's. Standards of production rose, and as cookery principles were learned and gave rise to questions, experiments on the composition of the different foods and the use of visual aids increased. Time was taken at the beginning of each morning to discuss the previous day's lunch and for a review of the plans for the day so that timing could be accurate and lunch would not be delayed by careless follow-through. Several "company" lunches were served to guests such as Mr. Green and teachers.

Favorite Lunch Dishes

Spaghetti, hamburger, and tomatoes
 Macaroni, tomatoes, and cheese
 Baked beans
 Irish stew
 Spanish rice
 Sweet potato casserole
 Creamed soups (potato, bean, carrot,
 and onion)
 Végetable soup
 Escalloped potatoes
 Baked stuffed potatoes
 Escalloped corn
 Cheese fondu
 Sandwich fillings (demonstration of
 good packed lunches)

Behavior changes noted: the teacher's view. The cooks became increasingly critical of the quality of their products, measuring the product by standards given in the recipes and cook books.

Interest in eating balanced meals developed.

Hands were soon trained to speed, later to accuracy and speed—an important item when lunch must be finished during the noon hour.

Attention became more prolonged and details of procedure were more consistently followed.



COURTESY POMPANO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, POMPANO, FLA.

*The First Grade Making Juice from
Tomatoes They Grew*



COURTESY ARMONK PUBLIC SCHOOL, ARMONK, N. Y.

Third-Grade Pupils Preparing Cereal



COURTESY DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

Children Playing with Their Experimental Animals

Pupils Studying in Preparation for Cooking



COURTESY ARMONK PUBLIC SCHOOL, ARMONK, N. Y.



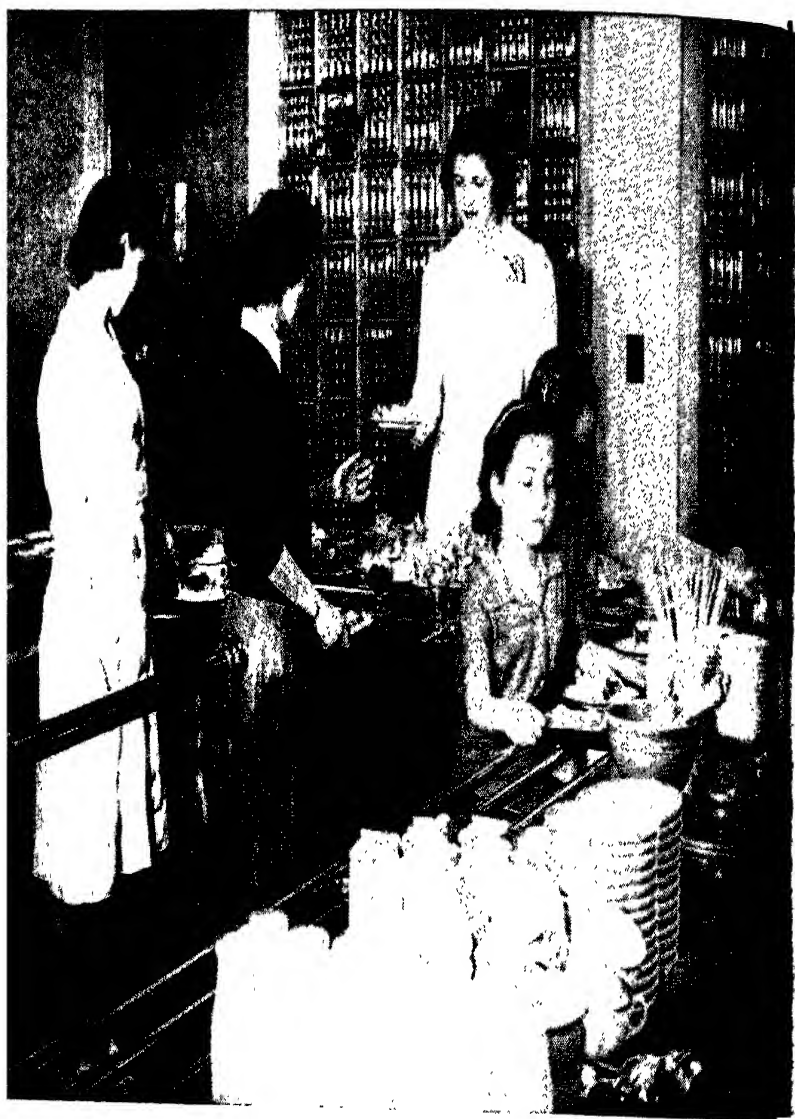
*The Home Economics Club
Preparing for a Picnic*

COURTESY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, PLATTSBURG, N. Y.

*The Home Economics Club
Making Biscuits*



COURTESY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, PLATTSBURG, N. Y.



COURTESY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, PLATTSBURG, N. Y.

Pupils Select Their Own Lunches

The shoppers vied with each other to reduce costs in their buying, and shopping took less time as the term advanced.

Borrowed containers were less frequently forgotten.

Discipline cases decreased. Tensions were noticeably less as the "terrors" of the group became busier and better-fed boys.

Table manners and conversation became more acceptable.

Mothers wrote letters of appreciation to the school or came to visit the class at work.

BOOKS CHILDREN OF NINE TO ELEVEN MAY ENJOY

BACHE, ELIZABETH DU BOIS, and LOUISE F. BACHE, *When Mother Lets Me Make Candy*. New York: Dodd, Mead, 1930. This is a good book for its purpose.

HAWKINS, NANCY, *Let's Cook*. New York: Knopf, 1942. This is a manual of cooking written for grown-ups, but it should be helpful for beginners of all ages.

LETTON, MILDRED O., *Let's Go Exploring*, Chicago: National Dairy Council, 1940. An up-to-date and challenging treatment of marketing, for the purchaser of foods.

MALTBY, LUCY MARY, *It's Fun to Cook*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston, 1938. This is an interestingly written cook book for the teen age boy and girl. It is in story form and has attractive illustrations and many good recipes.

NEW YORK HERALD TRIBUNE, HOME INSTITUTE, *Young America's Cook Book*. New York: Charles Scribner's, 1942. A beautifully illustrated cook book. Children are challenged to prepare the foods; recipes are well balanced and accompanied by clear directions.

NEW YORK PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION AND THE NEW YORK WORLD'S FAIR, INC., *The Birthday Party*. New York: Noble and Noble, 1936. A social studies story book about food which suggests that children in the home have a vital part in helping buy, prepare, and enjoy the food as they share it with their friends.

TEACHERS, PARENTS, AND CHILDREN PLAN FOODS EXPERIENCES

Pupils in the upper elementary years and first two years of junior high school will be interested in studying foods and

nutrition, if there is an active school and community interest in them. Such situations as the following may create interest. Many children earn or have their own spending money and buy "cokes" and food daily at a drugstore or restaurant or eat at least one of their meals there. They like snacks or are hungry much of the time. Families have more money because of having several members earning, and are spending more money on food. Other families have less funds because their incomes have not changed and food costs have increased. The children are more aware of health because young men and women must meet certain standards to qualify for government service. Boys and girls must pack lunches for themselves and other members of the family. Results of recent scientific food research are receiving popular attention; for example, the dehydration of foods, and the accelerated advertising of the use of vitamins. Literature for boys and girls of this age treats of the social, economic, and scientific aspects of food, and of its place in people's lives. Adults and senior high school and college people are participating in school or community activities related to food, i.e., in consumer-buying, relief, or educational endeavors.

Pupils of these years can assume responsibility for planning and executing entire units of experiences centered around a central problem which may, and should, have extensive correlations with their other studies and with world or community life. A unit of experiences with food and nutrition as a core might arise from life situations similar to those suggested, or from a need felt by a group or members of the group. Planning should be carried on jointly by the pupils, their teacher, and, if possible, their parents. It is the teacher's responsibility to see that the experiences chosen and carried out by the pupils are progressively worthwhile for them, contribute to permanent values, and are difficult enough to challenge the best effort of the particular group of pupils. For example, one seventh grade group might find a challenge in faithfully following directions and carrying out a rat experiment, while another group of the same age range, but more

mature, could prepare simple meals for the underprivileged younger children, and help to evaluate their improvement over a period of time.

Experiences with food should contribute to what the child needs most to learn. For example, a major goal for an individual child might be the ability to evaluate the adequacy of his own three daily meals.

A unit of experiences of a group should be kept "in tune" with the community. For example, an approach might be made through a case study based on living levels of the community, or on an approximation of the level of living of the class members. To illustrate: A family which is composed of Mr. A., Mrs. A., Jean, age six, and Arthur, age ten, spends \$25.00 a month on food, which is 25 per cent of what Mr. A. earns. Is this too large a percentage of the family income for families in our neighborhood to spend on food? Do they need to spend this amount in order to be adequately fed? If so, what makes food cost so much? What should be the minimum cost for food for a family with the income of family A if they lived in our neighborhood?

These problems and others which might arise from the pupils' thinking might be worked on by committee groups, and their reports made the basis of class discussions. The study just related and similar ones might lead into the larger food problems with which the world is struggling. If the world problems are under discussion first and lead to the cost of foods locally, solving a family problem might be a means of explaining the more general ones.

Such a sequence of thought may be on too adult a plane for some junior high school pupils. The experiences should help a child solve a problem real to him, and be adaptable to individual differences in the group. Mary may have to buy the food for her family of five with \$1.25 a day. James may be earning \$10.00 to \$15.00 a week after school and on week-end jobs, and yet not be in a state of good nutrition. Each child should have an understanding of the end to be gained through nutrition study and the preparation of meals.

He should help to set up goals, to find ways of attaining them, and to evaluate what is accomplished in terms of the original goals and those which have developed as the study proceeded.

Procedures develop individual initiative. The nature of the experience, as in all study, calls for the use of suitable procedures. Laboratory practice will be needed for learning new processes and for increasing standards of production. A demonstration used in the correct place saves time and food supplies and helps pupils visualize processes and perform them correctly. It may also arouse interest in, or remove fear of, aspects of the situation hitherto unknown to the pupil.

The discussion procedure is basic in planning what to do, and when and how to use different study methods, and in clarifying thinking on what is being discovered through the laboratory, field trips, home practice, and reading experiences. Finally, the discussion is needed in summarizing what has been learned, and in deciding where and how to use the newly acquired skills and appreciations and what new experiences to engage in.

Evaluation of the status of a child's knowledge, attitudes, and principal needs by means of a questionnaire may help the teacher guide the child, especially if the area of study is new to him. Questionnaires of this nature should be simple and should be used with discretion. Evaluation should be continuous throughout the unit of experiences, and should be a part of the child's study.

Children of these years who have learned how to work in democratically cooperative groups take greater responsibility for planning their own study procedures. If study devices are used they should develop a child's initiative and creative activities.

A teacher makes plans as each new semester approaches. These may include a conference with other teachers who have worked with the pupils she is meeting for the first time, a review of the pupils' permanent records, more careful reading of anecdotal records of pupils needing special guidance and, if necessary or possible, some home visits.

A review of the progress of a semester's study in a consolidated school in a small town illustrates how good pre-planning engaged the parents' participation from the beginning of the year to the conclusion of the experiences.

A SEVENTH GRADE, THEIR MOTHERS, AND THEIR TEACHERS WORK TOGETHER

During the week preceding the opening of school Miss May, of C. school undertook to know the pupils of her seventh grade group better than she had known other groups. She first studied the cumulative records of the thirty boys and girls who would be in the class. She visited the homes of those whom she knew the least, having to drive into the country to reach some pupils. In this way she learned about their out-of-school interests and more immediate problems. When school opened, the mothers of the pupils were invited to a tea where they became acquainted and learned something of each others' interests and talked of school and local situations. Some of the general problems of the children were raised in the large group discussion which Miss May led. As an outgrowth of this meeting some of the mothers called upon those mothers who had not attended the meeting to discover their points of view, and to interest them in coming to the school at a later time.

As soon as possible a second meeting was held at which the group was organized and plans were made for the year. In preparation for it Miss May outlined certain large areas of interest that had developed in previous years. This outline served as a starting point for the day's discussion. The actual curriculum of the children was not determined for it was agreed that this must be done by the children, working with Miss May and others involved in the specific projects. However, there was general agreement that certain values in personal and home living especially needed to be considered. Programs of participation by the parents were also decided upon. Days were selected when each mother was available for observation and for assisting in the classroom and with field trips. A social program for the year was tentatively planned.

As frequently happens in the fall of the year, the children became interested in the preservation of foods because at school and

at home foods were being canned for the winter. At school the older pupils were assisting in canning for the cafeteria, and the pupils of the seventh grade asked if they could help. It was arranged that they should go in small groups to the kitchen. There they helped prepare and place in jars the fruits and vegetables which were later processed. Miss Allen, the homemaking teacher, helped them cook, seal, and label the jars, store them, and care for the equipment they had used. Miss May and Miss Allen then helped the children plan for several days' canning for themselves so that they might carry through the complete process. The teachers went to the store with the purchasing committee to buy the foods, and some children brought garden products from home. Class secretaries kept the market orders and records and Miss May helped the children record the recipes they used and figure costs of the final products. Ways of preserving foods other than by canning were studied under Miss Allen's guidance, including the underlying principles of food preservation.

Discussion of how to retain the food values during the processes of cooking led to reading about what foods do for us, and about the values in the different foods. The question of how much one should eat led to a consideration of what constitutes a suitable day's diet for children eleven to thirteen. Sample menus were set up to show how to divide the day's food allotment among the different meals.

The class decided it would like to prepare some of these menus, and a class meeting was held in the homemaking room to plan details with Miss Allen. Each "family" of four then planned, prepared, and served a lunch, trying to see which family could have the best lunch for the least cost.

Standards were set up before the work was begun. They included the quality and appearance of each dish in the menu, effect and nutritive value of the menu, appearance of the table, management of the entire experience, table courtesies and conversation, and clean-up.

The mothers assisted in the classroom, accompanied groups to market, to a dairy and to the county and state fair, and helped when larger school functions required extra help in the preparation of meals or light refreshments.

EVALUATION IS AN INTEGRAL PART OF STUDY

The teachers called the entire group together frequently as they worked on the project so that critical analysis of what they were doing could be made. Replanning, which included setting up new procedures and sources of materials, was determined as needed. Following such a procedure and comparing the values in the current experiences with ones in preceding activities, one safeguards against mistakes and keeps the learning process going forward.

Mothers and teachers were often members of the "family," especially when the meals were served. Occasionally, when dinners were served in the evening, or on special days, fathers lent an encouraging presence. Through such group contacts parents were made aware of the similarities of children's problems and interests, and became encouraged to talk of their families' as well as of community problems. In this semi-social process a community of interests developed which resulted in discussions that were truly adult learning situations.

Where the group-study plan is used, as has been described in this and the preceding series of experiences, several large or involved activities may be going on at the same time. For this reason an abundance of study materials and references are needed in each homeroom and each laboratory. Guides to study which are not too detailed, but which may consist of questions, references, experiments to perform, or persons to consult, provide adequate guidance for the self-direction of the child. The teacher is then more free to move from group to group with suggestions or demonstrations, and to help those who may be less dexterous in manual skills.

A cumulative file of study guides, suggestions for evaluation of what is studied, related references, or recent magazine articles by reliable authors should be kept with the pupils' help, and be available to them at all times.

Day-by-day evaluation may be quite informal. Management skills are gained gradually, and progress in them might be noted by making one list of the most successful parts of the experience, and a second list of the parts that could have

been managed better. Standards for products may be set up during demonstrations, by the teacher and the class, supported by the authority of reference books and by the goals the pupils have planned on the basis of previous experiences.

Evaluation devices for self-appraisal and self-teaching may be developed by the children and their teachers as part of the planning before or during a lesson or series of lessons. They serve to make the pupils work consciously toward goals and standards that are worthwhile, anticipate what may occur, and, later, to evaluate what they have learned. Devices that are most valuable are brief and easily used, and cover a limited area of experiences. Check lists and other devices, which have been developed for use with senior high school pupils, may be used with modifications and discretion in certain upper elementary groups. If fact-finding devices are used before a series of experiences, a follow-up quiz is of educational value if it is used for personal and group evaluation of what has been learned rather than for grading pupils.

Records of the child's use at home of things learned at school may be kept by each one in his personal folder and be used as guides for his next experiences.

THE SCHOOL LUNCH PROVIDES ATTRACTIVE, HEALTHFUL FOODS

How does one get Johnny and Mary to eat the right foods? Parents and teachers probably set one of the biggest handicaps the child faces in this respect when they dominate every aspect of the child's three to four daily meals. The child must experience many different kinds of things about foods, and adults should make the process of eating easy, pleasant, and at first business-like.

BRIGHT, CLEAN ROOMS AND EQUIPMENT ARE IMPORTANT

Certain emphasis should be put upon the environment and equipment for eating. Environment, as applied to dining in

the school, includes the physical space and equipment, the availability of food, the amount and kinds of food needed, and how they can be prepared and served attractively so that children will wish to eat.

At home, as soon as an infant outgrows his high chair and begins to observe adults eating, he should have a low table of his own, or share one with other young children in the family. It should be a miniature of the family table. If a bouquet decks the family table, the child should have some decoration on his table. The provision of a small table need not be difficult or expensive. Orange crates or discarded boxes which are sawed, put together, and painted can become very attractive tables, stools, or chairs. The older brother or sister might make these in the crafts room at school if parents cannot make them.

The preschool usually has suitable equipment for serving the mid-morning and noon meals. School lunch rooms for the elementary children should have the same, with tables and chairs that are graduated in height. Frequently, however, one sees in school lunch rooms children of six, seven, and eight years struggling with over-sized trays and dishes as they sit at tables that are too high. Such conditions are conducive to poor table manners. Good table manners may be defined as eating, and otherwise conducting oneself while at the table, in a manner that is pleasing to others. Schools should help teach good manners in eating.

THE LUNCH PERIOD SHOULD BE A SOCIAL HOUR

The atmosphere of the lunch room should be social. People should be friendly, voices should be kept lowered, and the children should be encouraged to relax and chat with their friends while eating. Undue hurry should be avoided, but dawdling not encouraged. A few moments of quiet reading or music preceding the lunch period might contribute to relaxation. The children might then eat more of their food, digest it better, and consequently feel better afterwards.

Many more school lunch rooms could be made artistically attractive by murals designed and executed by the children. Some lunch rooms have murals showing scenes typical of the home community or of historical events which have appealed to the children. However, children will have many original ideas for their rooms if permitted to express themselves. A few schools have reported using the school orchestra to give atmosphere to the noon hour. Do sixth grade schools have time for orchestras? The answer is yes! The question gives rise to another one. Do not schools take time in the home-room to discuss behavior? Why not use part of this time in more gracious living and avoid the necessity for discussing behavior?

Children's interest in food may be increased if they participate in serving the food. In the preschool the children are served small portions and are permitted to have a second serving if they wish it. They carry their plates to the service table and often help themselves. Little tots will go, unprompted, for the cod-liver oil bottle and carry it to the teacher. Older children have greater pride in their lunch room if they help to operate it. They can help place foods on the counter, fill water glasses, sort and stack dishes and trays at the clean-up counter, and help keep tables and floors tidy in the dining room.

THE CAFETERIA PLAYS A MAJOR PART IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

In some of the modern schools eight-, nine-, and ten-year-olds have helped plan their own menus, have shopped for some of the foods, with or without their teacher, and assisted with the management of the lunch room during serving periods. The children work in squads, rotating so that no child is forced to use for routine matters time which should be spent in learning new facts and understandings. For example, the experiences of buying may lead to a study of the cost of the foods bought and of individual meals. Under the guid-

ance of a skillful teacher the study can be related to the transportation and care of foods, wholesale and retail marketing processes, government control of food and its social implications; for example, its use in the rehabilitation of children of other nations. These are but a few of the possible related ideas, more usual ones being those pertaining to community sanitation regulations about the handling of foods. Modern refrigeration, dehydration, and transportation methods are vitally interesting to the sixth, seventh, and eighth grade pupils who can learn facts about these through the handling or study of the supplies used in their school. There are opportunities in larger schools to observe wholesaling methods.

Classroom teachers can help children become more self-dependent in the lunch room through discussion of its management, ways of increasing its efficiency, and their part in such changes. Visits to the kitchen help children to understand how it functions and to have respect for this part of the school. In certain schools an all-school cafeteria club, composed of representatives of the upper primary and intermediate classes, takes the lead in ironing out small difficulties with the other children, and in promoting understanding of regulations made for the smooth functioning of the lunch room.

Parents can help with the lunch room or cafeteria in the elementary school. The present national interest in food and nutrition, and the shortage of paid and efficient help have led to having mothers' groups assume certain responsibilities for the lunches. As situations differ so greatly, each community must solve its own problem. Where there has been no school lunch one may be started by serving one or two hot dishes supplemented by milk, fruit, and sandwiches.

The use of products from private and community gardens in the school lunch rooms and cafeterias is becoming widespread. In many rural and village districts children have been encouraged to pay for their lunches with vegetables, fruits, eggs, milk, and other products of farm or garden.

FOOD PREFERENCES GUIDE CHILDREN'S CHOICES

The child ought to like what he should eat! The child comes to school with habits of food selection and eating which are similar to his parents' patterns. Many children are accustomed to eating exactly what their parents and older persons in the family eat.

In the preschool the child is faced with growing away from the eating habits of babyhood to those of a more adult level. If the child is in good mental and physical health, the adjustments are not difficult and he will enjoy his meals. If he sees others enjoying their meals he is likely to accept the entire process of dining as a matter of course and not develop negative reactions to the foods.

Teachers help the young child by serving the meal with the calm expectancy that it will be eaten, and by introducing new foods gradually and in small quantities. Plate lunches which contain a generous but not too large serving of two or three foods nicely garnished, and which have variety in color, texture, and flavor serve to create appetite and help the child learn to eat different foods.

Sampling methods are frequently used for the older pupils, and attractive advertising helps to present new foods, give daily and weekly menus, and overcome or prevent prejudices. The skillful teacher provides favorite dishes with just the right proportion of new ones so that monotony is avoided and balanced meals are selected.

Scientific research has shown the 'existence of individual needs and idiosyncrasies in foods which affect preferences. Doctors counsel also that if a child is over-tired, emotionally upset, or ill he should not be urged to eat. Normally, the pleasure of eating with his companions and helping to make the table or meal ready are motivation enough for the young child. The school can help the mothers of preschool children who have food or eating problems. The mothers may study the problems with the teacher through observation, conferences, and reading. When it is practicable they may help

teach the children by eating with the group at noon (if the group is an early primary one) or by engaging in some of the educational and practical aspects of the cafeteria program.

TEACHERS CAN INCREASE THE POPULARITY OF THE LUNCH ROOM

The nutrition expert in the school, whether she is the lunch room or cafeteria manager, the assisting home economist, or the full-time homemaking teacher, has a new responsibility today in assisting the elementary teachers, the mothers, and older pupils who are helping, so that attractive, inexpensive meals may be served. Acting as a planning committee, they might each year work to improve the service in ways such as these: (1) interest the administration and school patrons in making the room as attractive as possible; (2) work out more efficient methods of operating the lunch room; (3) plan effective educational "devices" to teach people how to select their meals; for example, give bargains in foods that are best for the child, or publicize menus in advance in the halls and classrooms and to parents; (4) see that foods are well cooked and served attractively; (5) arrange counters to attract the child to foods; (6) see that space is provided for children carrying part of their lunches; (7) have assistants to help young children make their choices. Literature is available which should help in providing meals which meet these standards and demonstrate good dietetic and service principles.

The child chooses his meal. A major advantage of the cafeteria form of service is the variety of choices it offers, which enables it to satisfy individual preferences. In some school cafeterias the child is urged to eat adequate lunches by being presented with a rating card denoting the degree of excellence of his choice. This and similar kinds of evaluation might well be replaced by the child's own choosing, made with understanding as he gains knowledge from his study of foods (see Appendix, Exhibit B).

A child soon learns how to choose foods according to basic groups designated by dietary experts for lay persons. A classi-

fication highly recommended consists of twelve groups, set up by the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. They are: milk and milk products; potatoes and sweet potatoes; dry, mature beans, peas, and nuts; tomatoes and citrus fruits; leafy green and yellow vegetables; other vegetables and fruits; eggs; lean meat, poultry, and fish; flours and cereals; butter; other fats; and sugars. Dietaries are planned to include some foods from each group.

Selection within these groups is wide, and children learn how to judge when their meal is well balanced. The study of nutrition is needed to show the child why certain foods are "musts" for his health. Learning new facts is made easier if they are applied at once. If a child studies what constitutes a good lunch and chooses one which supplements other meals of his day, he is building good eating habits. If he has been buying two or more desserts and substitutes milk and a vegetable for two sweets, he is likely to feel better and continue the new habit. Teachers should encourage home practice of new habits and have the children help work out means of noting progress.

TYPICAL UNDERSTANDINGS CHILDREN MAY ACCEPT THROUGH ROUNDED EXPERIENCES WITH FOODS

An adequate amount of the right foods is needed for health.

Eating enough of the right kinds of foods makes a person strong for play and work, and makes him grow.

Breakfast and lunch are important meals and should supply at least one half of the day's food.

Balanced meals provide the right kinds of foods.

Remembering the food groups helps a person to choose a balanced meal.

Cod-liver oil is an important food.

Children need different amounts of food daily according to their age, size, sex, and how much exercise they have.

Scientists have discovered through research the foods people should eat.

The economics of foods affects each purchaser.

Food must be shipped into cities. This adds to its cost because of packing, refrigeration, and shipping.

Countries that produce much food have certain responsibilities toward countries needing food.

The best food for us is not always the most expensive food.

The money families spend on food depends largely on where they live, the number of persons in the family, the amount of food prepared in the home, and the season of the year.

An intelligent shopper for food knows something of local, state, and national food prices.

A weekly menu or plan for meals saves the homemaker money, time, and energy.

It is unwise to buy a large quantity of food if one does not have ample storage space.

Knowledge of the foods classes in the different food groups helps the shopper to divide the food money so as to insure balanced diets.

The money spent for food should be in accordance with the food budget.

Refrigeration of food in the home is an economy.

Attractive, nutritious meals result only from careful planning, buying, preparing, and serving of the foods.

Packed lunches can be good and "different" if they are carefully planned.

The food needs of the body are likely to be met if the lunch contains enough food, has one substantial food, a fruit, milk, something hot, and a sweet.

Different kinds of foods must be cooked in different ways in order to retain their food values, flavor, and color.

The use of left-over foods is one way to extend the family food money and to add variety to home meals.

An attractively set table makes a meal more appetizing.

Canning and preserving of home-grown foods is a pleasure when right methods are used.

The preparation of meals requires management.

Food dishes and meals must be prepared according to recipes and on a time schedule if they are to be of high standard. This requires that individuals or groups of people who are cooking together plan and follow their plans carefully.

Food should be prepared in a clean place with clean equipment and supplies.

Hands and clothes should be clean when pupils work with food.

Newly bought and left-over foods must be stored in suitable containers to prevent spoilage. Refrigerators and containers must be clean for the same reason.

Cleaning up after food preparation is important and requires planning.

The children make progress in social adjustment and in forming good personal habits as the values listed above are being gained through cooperative, integrating experiences. For example, the pupils' parents and teachers may note that the child assumes responsibility for carrying through his tasks according to plans; shares more generously his materials and preferred activities; enjoys his cafeteria period, and uses greater care in the selection of his food; is more willing to help with family meals and do the marketing when mother is away or must do other work; is more willing to pack his own lunch than heretofore; is more cooperative in classroom and all-school activities; and understands that a person may not at all times have the foods he likes best.

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VII. *Caring for Younger Children and Convalescents*

BOYS AND GIRLS CARE FOR YOUNGER CHILDREN

The unobservant might suppose that children do not have the actual care of younger children until they are twelve or thirteen years old. They might also think that this kind of responsibility is limited to girls. Neither is true. Janet, aged eight and a half, gave her brother a bath. (See page 83.) And who can forget the daily care and constant devotion that Ben, of Phyllis Bottome's *London Pride*, gave to the baby Mabel?

Children a little older frequently have the care and feeding of younger ones in the home while their mothers do the housework or carry part- or full-time jobs. In certain kinds of communities the actual care of the infant is often left to the older daughter of the family. Many children must "mind" the baby and toddler, who has to be amused or kept out of the way of the busy parent. The arrival of a baby in the family may arouse the interest of a pupil, and give rise to discussion at school on the proper care to give a baby.

SCHOOL EXPERIENCES INCREASE UNDERSTANDING OF HOME CARE OF THE TODDLER AND INFANT

The teacher will meet an actual need if she arranges to have pupils who care for babies and toddlers in their out-of-school hours learn at school the most important do's and don't's of their care. She might plan with the district or school nurse to have the children see a real baby bathed, dressed, and fed at school, or at the home of a pupil or parent. Plans might be made with a mother to have those pupils who are interested go to her home when she bathes the baby. One teacher

took her own ten-month-old child to school and let a group of her pupils watch the baby be bathed and then care for him there for one day. Certain teachers have found the use of a simple guide for observation useful in leading older pupils from more or less casual observation of a child to a definite interest in the study. Calvert suggests things to look for in observing a young child in terms that a preadolescent can understand.¹

Other pupils who are interested in studying how a child learns might be given responsibility for small groups of children or one child during different activities of the preschool or early elementary groups. A simple questionnaire may help the teacher learn what experiences with children the different pupils need (see Appendix, Exhibit C).

Where the need is shown, children's diets and how to prepare their foods might be studied by pupils having to prepare children's meals. This study might be made a part of the study of the use of milk in the diet, and enlarged to show how vegetables and supplementary foods like cod-liver oil are introduced into a child's diet.

Reading what authorities say about standards and reasons for the infant's and toddler's routines of sleeping, eating, elimination, dress, and play, and the importance of adults' and others' behavior toward them provides bases for pupil standards.

Helping guide children at school is feasible. It is desirable and administratively possible for pupils to study children at school, and to work directly with them. It will not curtail but extend their learning in other educational areas. The larger group projects in which two or more classes cooperate in a project need only to be mentioned, as educational literature gives many such illustrations. In the guided study of children, however, groups of three or four pupils can be rotated in nursery school, kindergarten, or early primary group participation. Rotation might be on a weekly basis. On such

¹ Maude Richman Calvert, *A First Course in Homemaking*, pp. 488-492.

a plan, different committees center their help on the different aspects of the child's day such as the physical check-up, the song or story period, the morning or noon lunch, or the rest period. Each group makes its plan beforehand with the teacher or teachers in charge, and the results of the experiences are shared with the entire class during the discussion period which follows the experiences. The teacher's guidance is necessary largely to see that worthwhile, concrete goals (and not too many for successful accomplishment) are set up; also, to keep the thinking during the discussion directed toward disclosing what was learned, whether in terms of the original goals or through unforeseen happenings. Short objective quizzes help to correct pupils' errors in fact and judgment. They should be followed by careful analysis.

New projects develop. As an outgrowth of the experiences with young children, especially with those of the kindergarten and primary groups, the boys and girls might become interested in writing original stories to tell children, using as guides the standards for children's literature which authorities suggest. They should know, for instance, that stories for the very young child should be short, easy to follow, about children like himself, and illustrated with bright, suitable pictures. If the themes, words, and action are kept suitable to the young child, the pupil may test his story by telling it during the story hour at school. This type of experience helps the pupils to clarify their understanding of language, to increase their vocabularies, and to be at ease when reading aloud. The stories may be built around a picture, may be illustrated by line drawings, or may be based on a series of drawings or cut-outs, and thus be an avenue of creative expression.

Music in song, phonograph records, and radio programs for children might be explored and evaluated first by standards the group has set, then by trial with groups of children. Most schools have a record player, and after trying records on it with the children the pupils might be encouraged to buy more suitable ones for home use. Older pupils can help younger ones play their own records, for very young children can do

this if the machine and records are placed low enough to be within their reach. Such experiences with music should be of help in building attitudes about music, but of course the best growth through music occurs in creative efforts by each individual, whether he is talented or not.

Children seek what they wish to hear on the air, and should be helped to listen to radio programs suited to them. There are some worthwhile radio programs for children. Local stations over the country present dramatizations of children's stories; Superman still stirs the imagination of some children, and the "American School of the Air" on the Blue Network offers instructive programs. There has been little conscious attempt to present over the radio facts which children can understand about American society, i.e., about its people, about the contributions different groups make to our culture, and about its music, arts, and commerce. Through graded programs for each age group, the responsibilities and real freedoms of a democratic society might be interpreted.

Eleven- to thirteen-year-olds have excellent opportunity to develop standards for programs as they learn the mechanisms of managing the school broadcasting system. Interested children from this age group might form a club in the school to study the programs children like, and to devise ways to improve the caliber of pupils' music and program interests.

A committee composed of the homeroom, art, music, and homemaking teachers and interested parents might collaborate with the pupils on such projects as have been suggested, helping to develop their creative efforts and their ability to criticize programs intelligently, and to plan their leadership of the younger children.

PLAYTHINGS HAVE EDUCATIONAL AND ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE

Schools have not fully recognized the educational possibilities in the use and study of toys and playthings. Gavian found slight emphasis upon the selection, care, repair, and

making of toys, suggested in courses of study for elementary grades in leading educational systems of the country.² Children, however, play with some kinds of toys or a substitute for them, and many children spend a great deal of money on toys. Schools should help children set standards for their purchase and use.

Teachers of very young children have capitalized on the value of large and small manipulative toys. Teachers of the primary grades have helped the children construct papier-mâché or stuffed figures for their puppet shows to make the dramatic presentation of their stories more realistic. The construction of articles in the industrial arts and crafts shops has been expanded from the making of articles useful in the home to include, for the later primary groups, the making of pens for pets, boats to float or sail, planes to fly, or wooden toys for a brother or sister. In certain schools used toys are repaired in the crafts shop, and repainted by their owners, in whatever grade they may happen to be; this offers opportunity for originality in the use of paints and color combinations.

Homemade toys may be as desirable as bought ones if they stir the child to creative activities. Drums, rattles, jigsaw puzzles, broomstick horses, barns, doll beds, carriages, trains, and other toys can be made in school and their appeal to children can be tested in the nursery school or primary classes. The older pupils are frequently inspired to reproduce school-made toys at home, as they can be made from boxes, cartons, and other simple materials.

Pupils of the intermediate and upper elementary years usually are interested in making a study of toys because they are still using, buying, or making them for themselves. They need help if they are to discover what makes toys and playthings good or poor, safe or harmful; what ones are suitable for children of different ages; what the child seeks through his playthings; and what kinds stimulate him to try new kinds of creative and imitative activities.

² Ruth Wood Gavian, *Education for Economic Competence*, p. 97.

An alert teacher will see the needs. She will note periods of greater interest in getting new toys; usually these times come at the holidays or at changing seasons of the year. The present tendency for children to earn or to have more spending money may be affecting her group, so that a study of relative values and costs will be opportune. Other influences might lead to the study. Excerpts from a teacher's records of successful experiences of her group read as follows.

THE CHILDREN STUDY TOYS

Need for the Study

The children are having more money to spend.

Movie-going is increasing.

The recreation room at school needs games and toys.

The toys and gadgets which are on hand are of poor quality.

Several pupils who have responsibility for younger children at home do not enjoy it—some are openly rebellious.

How Interest Was Developed

Bulletins showing pictures and diagrams for making toys were placed on the table and bulletin board.

Two pupils asked questions about them, and the suggestion was made that the group might think about games and toys which would help out in the game-room situation.

Group discussion brought offers to lend some games for use in the game room to see which ones children liked best.

Certain pupils brought from home toys and games they had enjoyed (even broken ones were brought upon the teacher's suggestion).

Committees of two visited different lower grade rooms during the play periods, making note of the kinds of toys most used and liked.

The Toys and Games Are Evaluated

The toys made quite an array as they were placed on the table.

Children's comments were varied, such as: "This is a swell game, we have one like that." "Isn't this a cute wagon—its handle isn't very strong." "The darling duck—but he needs some paint."

References were read to see what authorities say about desirable qualities in games and toys.

In discussion period standards for toys for children of different ages were named, then listed on the board. Class secretaries copied the lists as reminders for the group.

The class decided to find out what toys can be bought now, and if price makes much difference in their desirability.

The Problem Is Studied

Committees of two visited each local store (one committee to a store). Each committee had one kind of toy, game, or plaything to study. Durability, manipulative or usable quality, safety, variety in uses, number of persons who could use the article, and cost in relation to value were some features looked for.

Where the storekeeper was willing, several outstandingly good examples were borrowed for class examination. The understanding was that lost or damaged goods would be paid for. (The teacher's account stood as security for certain borrowings.)

The playthings were studied and scored on a scale of values based on points listed above and by authorities.

The borrowed articles were carefully packed by the committees and returned to the stores.

The Following Decisions Are Made

Games and toys that cost the least can often be the most fun; for example, marbles and jacks.

Toys should provide ways of playing, not just keeping a person busy; for example, bat and balls, darts, blocks, or boxes for little children.

Toys should help a person think; for example, materials to construct things.

Toys should provide exercise for the body; for example, wagons and wheelbarrows for outdoors, and ping-pong.

Games which several people can play are more fun than when only two can play. ("This helps people to be good sports and take turns, and to let others win.")

It would be easy to make boards for darts and checkers, and ping-pong tables, out of some discarded tables seen in the basement. Jigsaw puzzles could be made in the shop.

Old toys can be made to look like new with some paint and sandpaper.

The group should make some games and toys and rebuild old ones.

New Plans Are Made

New committees were formed and plans were made to consult with the shop and homemaking teachers about materials which would be needed and available, the desirability of reclaiming old toys then on hand and probable costs of this and the making of some new games that the group thought were needed. As the games and toys were finished in the shop, places in the lower grade and recreation rooms were found for their use. Before putting them into use the objects were displayed, with a description of their construction and cost, in the show cases in the hallways.

Evaluation of the projects. Evaluation of the group and individual experiences should follow soon after the participation, so that the pleasure the children have had may be enhanced, finer details of them recalled and made more clear, and faulty judgments questioned. The pupils should lead in the development of deductions as much as possible, the teacher leading only at points where ideas need to be clarified and new facts learned more accurately. The principles deduced by the pupils should be their own discovery—not learned as subject matter—and be so acceptable to them that they will be useful to them in future unpredictable situations.

TYPICAL UNDERSTANDINGS CHILDREN MAY ACCEPT THROUGH ROUNDED EXPERIENCES WITH YOUNGER CHILDREN

Each child is different from all others.

Pupils may have less fear or dislike of caring for younger children. A study of them may give pupils new ideas of the important part younger children have in home life, and how much better behaved they are when grown-ups treat them as persons rather than as playthings or nuisances. The only child, or one with no young brothers or sisters at home, is

provided with a subject or subjects to study and a new socializing influence by being with children in an informal situation.

Through experiences with infants pupils learn the right ways of caring for the physical needs of the baby, and how the baby reacts to skillful handling. Facts about his care include the right equipment for bathing the baby, how to test the room and bath temperature, how to bathe, dress, and carry the child, how to care for parts of the body requiring special care, schedules for the child's day, and many other details.

Through playing and working with the preschool child, the pupils may learn the importance of good physical routines at all ages; what makes a child act as he does, and how to guide him. The pupils may learn some of the foundations of habit formation, if their teachers help them to work out the elements which enter into making or breaking habits.

Under the guidance of a skillful teacher, the pupils may be helped to incorporate what they learn into their own daily routines and social behavior.

THE PREADOLESCENT HELPS CARE FOR CONVALESCENTS

The preadolescent child is too young to have full responsibility for persons who are ill. Emphasis for him in health instruction should chiefly be on what constitutes healthful living for him, the correction of physical defects he may have, and the achievement of optimum health by him, in so far as this is possible. Children of this age, however, do have responsibility at home for making the sick comfortable, preparing light meals for them, and taking partial care of convalescent children and adults.

Epidemics of colds or other illnesses, discussions of how to live healthfully, or an actual situation in which a pupil must assume any of the above-named or similar responsibilities,

provide enough motivation for the child to study at school what his role might be when there is illness in the home.

Both mental and physical aspects are important. The major purpose of school experiences of this nature should be to have the pupil realize that caring for the convalescent child or adult has two parts, the physical and the mental; and that the boy or girl with imagination can do much to make the ailing one comfortable and his days of recovery less tedious. Pupils, if given the opportunity, will soon demonstrate their imaginative and intellectual differences in the ways they discover for entertaining and looking after convalescents.

Convalescents wish diversion. The children should learn that entertaining the convalescent means keeping him busy with or thinking about something interesting to him. A boy may be interested in flying, motors, or natural history; a girl in dress, knitting, soap carving, or stories. An important way of helping might thus be to provide convalescents with new materials to read, play, or work with so that their attention or imagination is stirred, and the hours they are awake are occupied.

The children may learn new things to do at school. One of the favorite school experiences is to learn to make articles which convalescents might make of scrap or inexpensive materials. Yarn, felt, wooden buttons, spools, soap for carving, old magazines for scrapbooks, old maps, and many other materials lay the foundation. "Games and Gadgets for the Convalescent" might be a bulletin board lead to start the search for new ideas. The pupils might have a contest in searching for things a child or grown-up might enjoy doing in bed or when confined to his room or to the house. Learning how to act when in a sickroom, or when in charge of a convalescent, has great appeal to the pupils. At school the children may work out rules to follow when visiting a patient in the hospital, when visiting one in his home, and when caring for a sick child.

Learning how gives confidence and skill. There are several other kinds of experiences suitable for the child to have at

school which will help give him confidence, and skills for helping at home when people are ill. The children may practice making a bed for a patient, with and without a patient in the bed. (A demonstration of these processes by an expert should precede the practice.) A bedroom might be arranged with the comfort and amusement of the patient and the convenience of the homemaker in mind. Ways of keeping the bedroom clean and tidy without disturbing the patient may be studied. Improvised equipment and simple devices which are helpful in convalescence may be made, or borrowed ones exhibited. For example, bed rests, screens against drafts, bed cradles, tray tables and bedside tables, dustless floor mops, laundry bags, lamp shades, and other articles may be improvised from school supplies to demonstrate the ease and lack of cost of making them. Most homes have some kind of serving tray. Frequently an old one can be freshened at school with new paint and design. The cooperative leadership needed from the art, health, homemaking, and homeroom teachers is readily seen.

The experiences may be correlated also with ones in health, such as those in first aid. If first aid is not taught elsewhere, the homemaking and homeroom teachers might work together in conducting certain of the first aid experiences. First aid instruction at school brings to all children this valuable material and accents Scout and other club activities.

Correlation with foods is practical and enjoyable. An excellent correlation may come through food study because foods suitable for young children are usually suitable for the convalescent. Also, the foods are easily prepared and the children like to prepare the trays for serving. The pupils' imagination may be aroused so that they seek out a number of recipes and menus which will provide an adequate diet through liquid, soft or semi-solid, or light foods. In preparing foods for ill or convalescent people, special emphasis should be placed on the appearance of the tray and food, and the manner of serving. Trays should be spotlessly clean and covered with clean doilies of paper or linen. If possible, some

bright color should be added in the napkin, the tray cloth, a flower, or the dishes. Dishes which are easily handled and of a size suitable to the tray should be used.

It is sometimes difficult for people to plan a large enough daily food allowance for a person on a semi-liquid or soft diet without its being monotonous. Here again the pupils may get a rounded concept of getting variety, adequate food values, color, texture, and correct temperatures. They may plan, prepare, and serve a breakfast, mid-morning, lunch, and mid-afternoon tray at the same time. This is not difficult as all the groups plan the entire day's menu, evaluate it so that all are satisfied that the total seems satisfactory; then each group actually prepares one tray. The food so carefully prepared should be enjoyed by someone needing food. By pre-arrangement a group of early primary children who are in the below-par group nutritionally may be served the trays at the mid-morning, lunch, or mid-afternoon recess period.

TYPICAL UNDERSTANDINGS CHILDREN MAY ACCEPT THROUGH CARING FOR THE SICK AND CONVALESCENT

A child can help during illness and convalescence. There are many things a child should know if he is to be helpful during illness and convalescence.

A convalescent is happier and gets better faster when he can be occupied with something in which he is interested. There are many interesting things for a person to do while he is in bed or sitting up. A doctor's orders must be followed very carefully. A sick or convalescent person needs a great deal of rest, sleep, fresh air, sunshine, right food, and fresh drinking water. A convalescent person should be visited only before or after his meals, and not immediately before he retires for the night. If one visits people who are sick, one should stay a short time and talk only about cheerful things. A small gift such as a puzzle, a book, notes from friends, or flowers is acceptable to a convalescent.

The pupil should know that a sick person's room should be

easily cleaned, softly lighted, and correctly ventilated and heated. A sick person's bed should be comfortable, clean, easily cared for, and made correctly for his convenience. Special equipment for his care can be easily converted from ordinary household articles.

About foods for the convalescent the pupil should remember that a person who is ill or recuperating from illness should have suitable meals served attractively and on time; that the doctor usually prescribes a list of foods the patient may have and the doctor's directions for feeding the patient must always be followed; that the right amounts of the right kinds of food help a person recover from illness in the shortest possible time; that all food served to the patient should be simply prepared and daintily served; and that people slightly ill or convalescent need food that is easily digested, such as liquids, semi-solids, and light foods.

Through the experiences suggested in this section, and similar ones, pupils should be helped to have constructive, wholesome attitudes toward illness rather than a fear of it. They may develop also attitudes of patience with the handicaps of older persons in the family and with those who have minor ailments. They may wish to cooperate in new ways in the routines of the home when there is actual illness there. Feelings of responsibility for guarding their own health and safeguarding the health of others may be aroused. If the child has such school experiences while he is actually carrying responsibility for a convalescent he may learn to respect the opinions of the doctor, and nurse, and others which are based on knowledge, and to follow their directions.

Healthful living offsets illness. The pupil may be helped to develop the habit of eating more regularly and more carefully during his own minor illnesses. The other health rules for daily living such as drinking plenty of water, getting adequate sleep, rest and exercise, and having regular elimination may take on greater meaning.

Among other attitudes there may be developed among the pupils a willingness to make their beds daily, to be more hygienic in personal care, to help younger children in the

family to learn to wash before eating, and to scrub their teeth regularly, and to help in many little ways to establish good hygiene standards.

RECOMMENDED READINGS

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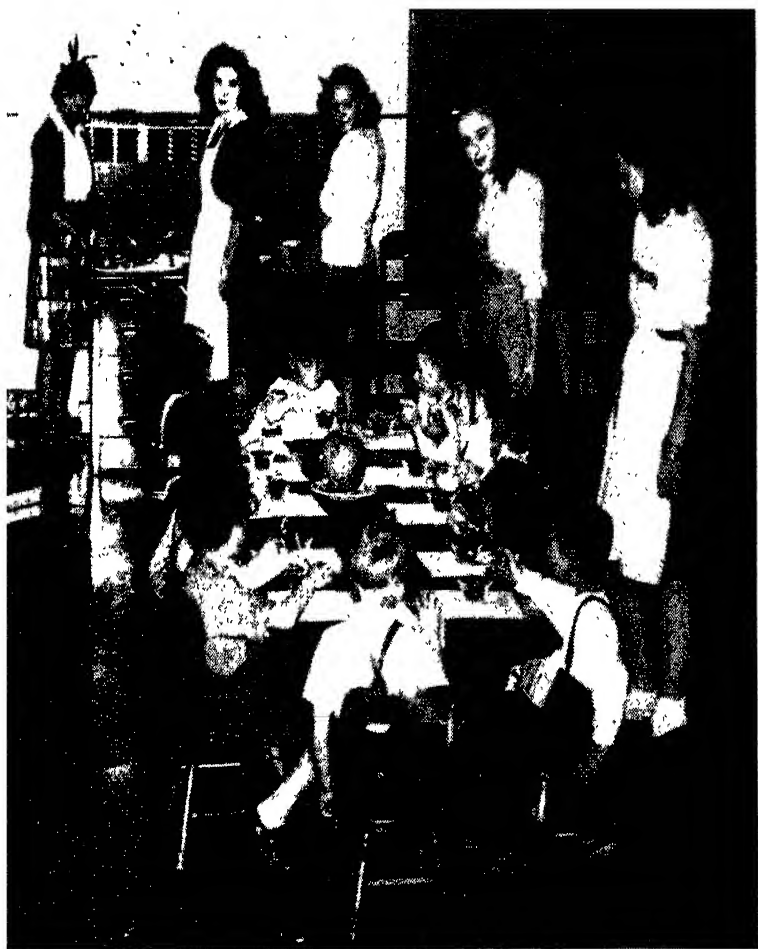
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- PELLER, LILI, and SOPHIA MUMFORD, *Our New Baby*. New York: Vanguard Press, 1943. 32pp. \$1.50.
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- Child Management*, Pub. 143, 1937. 107pp. 10¢.
- Good Posture in the Little Child*, Pub. 219, 1935. 25pp. 5¢.
- Home Play and Play Equipment for the Preschool Child*, Pub. 238, 1937. 20pp. 10¢.
- Supplies for the Newborn Baby*, 1942. 2pp. 5¢.
- Babies' Daily Time Cards*, 1943. 5¢.
- Traveling with a Baby*, 1942. 7pp. 5¢.



COURTESY EMMET BELKNAP SCHOOL, LOCKPORT, N.

Cooperative Activity Produces Baked Apples for the Party



COURTESY EMMET BELKNAP SCHOOL, LOCKPORT, N. Y.

Holding the Party



COURTESY FRANK BOYNTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, ITHACA, N. Y.

Eighth-Grade Pupils Assisting in St. John's Nursery School



COURTESY FRANK BOYNTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, ITHACA, N. Y.

Toys Being Made for the Central Nursery School

VIII. *Children Work for Better Homes and Housing*

CHILDREN "KEEP" HOUSE

Research corroborates the observation that children do housework. One research study reveals that boys and girls of nine years helped with fourteen different housekeeping activities, and also that, as they mastered the skills for doing them, the activities became chores and disliked. Other data from this study of likes and dislikes of home participation in housekeeping suggest that nine- and ten-year-olds like best the housekeeping and personal regimen experiences, while children from eleven to thirteen years of age take greater pleasure in handling foods and preparing meals.¹ Variety in tasks seems to be one way to interest preadolescents in taking part in homemaking.

If the young child is introduced to housekeeping routines at school as a part of his first social experiences where he is permitted to plan and carry out some of his duties alone or in cooperation with other children, pride of accomplishment results rather than a feeling of dislike. For example, interest may be enough to carry a class group through the good time of a party for which they have planned details of games, refreshments, and entertainment for the guests. The test of cooperation and responsibility learned frequently lies in the clean-up period and the prompt return of borrowed articles. The children need guidance in summarizing such events so that their successes may receive social approval and failures may serve as the basis for new planning.

Many children must help with routine tasks at home. Hanging up clothes one has taken off, leaving the bathtub

¹ Editha Luecke, *Factors Related to Children's Participation in Certain Types of Home Activity*, pp. 60-64.

clean after using it, and doing one's home work where one is comfortably near the family yet not in the way of grown-ups are personal and family matters. So also is the care of the rooms of the house, the yard, or the garden.

There are many ways of motivating a study of housekeeping and dignifying it. Ways of helping at home can be listed at school under different classifications of interest, difficulty, or possibly of seasons, and efforts each child makes daily to help at home can be recorded in progress chart form. For example, a chart on daily activities might recognize making the garden or weeding it, setting the table, going to the store, hanging up one's clothes, emptying waste baskets, sweeping or dusting, "minding" the baby, packing school lunches, and other activities.

Ten- to twelve-year-olds enjoy housekeeping at school. The inspiration to do things about the house may come to the ten- and eleven-year-old from doing housekeeping at school under challenging circumstances, from stories, and from discussion of the things other children have done. In some classrooms the children themselves annually repaint the bookshelves, work tables, frames of bulletin boards, and other odd pieces of furnishings in their homeroom. When classrooms are not adapted to carrying out house care activities, it may be more satisfactory to use the teachers' work and social room or the home-living rooms where settings are homelike. Here the pupils can carry through the entire process of cleaning and arranging the furnishings in the different rooms of a house, and many processes are learned. In the homemaking room, which is arranged as a living room in a home might be, artistic and functional arrangement of the furnishings can be studied by moving chairs, tables, lamps, and small objects into pleasing groups.

Experiences such as these often lead the children to rearrange the furnishings of their own bedroom or living room in seeking more convenient arrangement. They may be led, too, to make in the crafts and home-living laboratories equipment such as storage boxes, ironing boards, curtains, or other arti-

A time- or labor-saving study at school makes a practical introduction to thinking about routines. For example, when a class is working in the foods laboratory, two groups of pupils may try different procedures and sequences for washing, drying, and putting away the dishes and equipment, timing themselves and comparing each other's results at the close of the experience. A similar experiment can be done in cleaning the homemaking classrooms, and the feasibility of using like methods at home considered in class discussions. If conclusions are drawn in terms of the arrangement of working areas, pupils might be encouraged to undertake some improvements of this nature at home. Progress on home activities might be evaluated and increased by making at school a twenty-four-hour activities time chart, following it for a few days, and determining where time could be saved on daily routines and used for some favorite leisure-time interests.

The correct methods of sweeping, dusting, ventilating of rooms, caring for woodwork, and other housekeeping processes should be learned during these years, because the children like the manipulatory activities. Simple direction sheets which include correct methods and materials to use and standards for the finished result are helpful teaching-learning tools.² The danger in their use lies in making this activity the end goal rather than a means for speedily making ready the room or house for some anticipated living experience. Having a friend or a group to dinner or a party, either at school or at home, is reason enough for keeping to high standards when doing the job. The knowledge that the homemaking room is used each day, and by many people, motivates the "housekeeping committee" to keep a vase filled with flowers, the magazine stand dusted, and chairs in place.

Pupils of the upper elementary years respond to study guides which refer them to authorities for information on how to do housekeeping and meet different problems that

² Lydia Ray Balderston, *Housekeeping Workbook: How to Do It*. pp. 1-35.

arise. Study guides require the same thoughtful use as the direction sheets for younger pupils, so that they may continue to challenge the pupils' thinking. They should help the pupil solve problems arising from his own home situations by directing him to apply to them principles he has learned at school. Study guides have definite limitations, and they must be used with a cooperative working and evaluation procedure if they are to be a tool for learning, and not busy work (see Appendix, Exhibit D).

Evaluation occurs continuously. Evaluation of home care activities in which the younger pupils participate should occur daily and informally because interest in them and enthusiasm are built up hour by hour as the group lives and works in the classroom. In impromptu and planned group discussions the teacher can help the pupils see easier and better ways for living which grow out of what they do or do not do. The teacher may also see opportunities for children to help at home as she makes visits to their homes. These may be discussed with pupils afterwards, if the teacher is tactful and uses her knowledge in relation to the pupil's own progress. This method is especially successful when the child, his mother, and his teacher talk over what he does out of school, and the values to him of sharing in the routines of homemaking.

Partial evaluation of the pupil's home care activities may be made through the use of objective preliminary and follow-up tests in the intermediate and upper elementary groups. Simple questionnaires on repairs or changes needed or made to improve housekeeping practices are useful in discovering new information gained and misinterpretation or faulty use made of what has been learned. Questionnaires are best used as a means of recommending further study and to increase the pupil's satisfactions which are a result of his work and effort, and of his being a more helpful member of his group. New interests and problems and plans for pursuing them might result from the use of questionnaires and conferences with the parents.

A home project of considerable proportions, which grew from a pupil's interest in making her home kitchen more convenient, and aroused the interest of her entire family, developed from school time and labor-saving study. Weeks of study and work are briefly reported here.

MARY G. HELPS IMPROVE HER HOME

Interest is aroused through a school project. Mary G., an eighth grade pupil, lived in a small city. When working in the home-making rooms at school she learned to arrange the furniture and equipment so that they suited the purpose for which they were intended. Mary became interested in how to make more space in the kitchen at home. Miss Evans, her teacher, directed her to study Home Improvement bulletins from the Agricultural College and the Government, and floor plans and motion study layouts of kitchens. Suggestions she read about and changes she thought were needed in her home seemed too ambitious for her to attempt. Miss Evans asked and received permission to go home with her after school to have a visit with her and her mother. At this time they decided that, although the family felt the kitchen needed many things, the time was not right for making them. Miss Evans then suggested that Mary make a model of the changes which seemed most needed, building it to the scale of the real kitchen so that they could see what proportion of space might be saved if changes could be made, and what minor changes might be made to improve the real room.

Study and planning lead to making a model. Mary was skeptical at this stage of her thinking, but the beauty of some pictures of modern kitchens persuaded her to begin her model. An oblong carton with dimensions approximately in proportion to the real room was obtained. Mary worked out a scale of dimensions, plans were made on paper, then real work began.

The carton became a kitchen in miniature. The walls of the carton were cut down to correct height so that the entire interior was in proportion. Cardboard equipment and furniture like that then in the room was shaped and moved about to study old and new arrangements. Improvements decided upon were as follows. Two small windows were cut over the sink to admit more light.

A closet was built in one corner to hold the cleaning tools which stood in the corner. The back porch was enclosed to make a dining space, thus removing the table and chairs from the center of the kitchen. A new exit and steps were made by the sink and refrigerator. Next came redecorating. The walls were covered with plain paper to represent wall paint; wall paper floor covering represented linoleum when it was shellacked. The dining table and chairs were made of colored cardboard in harmony with the woodwork which had been colored with crayons. Bright curtains for the windows and other details followed to complete the picture.

Mary's family became interested in working with her. Mary carried her model home to work on it as her interest grew. The family made suggestions as families do. They became so interested that Mary's father and brother decided that they could finance some small improvements. They planned to make one change at a time so that the expense would not be too great, and began by cutting the windows over the sink. The enclosed porch would come next year, the corner closet would be built after the windows were finished. Mary, with Miss Evans' and her mother's help, made new kitchen curtains.

Satisfactions and growth occurred. One cannot measure the satisfactions this family experienced as a result of this project, as they probably will continue indefinitely. Mary showed an increased sense of responsibility and interest in her school studies. She learned to read thoughtfully, to follow printed directions, to figure costs, and to use art in a functional manner. She became conscious of the value of management in everyday living, at least somewhat. Above all, she was proud that her family appreciated what she was studying to the extent of using some of her ideas in improving their home. She seemed to enjoy her home duties more than before the project was undertaken.

Such studies can be adapted to rural, village, or city homes, but should be undertaken only when the child sees certain needs for improvement. Appreciation of modern conveniences for simplified living, the services of public utilities, and the relation between time, labor, and money can be made real if studied in terms of each child's own living situation.

Parents and teachers who desire to increase the children's

interest in homemaking should seek ways of varying the routines children perform, and of making the rooms they live in and care for as attractive as possible. For example, a nice finish on a table encourages one to keep it clean and unmarred, especially if one has put the polish or paint on it, or knows what it is like to do so.

THE FAMILY DECIDES WHERE TO LIVE

A family has many problems about where and how it shall live. The best interests of each member of the family and the family's income make certain decisions necessary. If the family is small, or the income limited, they may find it desirable to share a house or apartment with relatives for a while. If there are small children or several children it may seem desirable for them to live in the suburban or rural district. At all events, the interests of those supporting the family, and the proportion of the income which can be spent for rent and upkeep of the house, are among the chief factors in deciding where and how the family shall live.

Whether the home shall be in a "better" neighborhood often receives first consideration. Families that have the opportunity to choose the location of their home should also consider it in relation to the location of the work of the father, mother, or others supporting the family; to the kind of church, school, social life, and recreation desired; to the health and well-being of each one in the family; and to available markets and transportation facilities.

Every family can be interested in making the home they live in provide the greatest possible comfort and convenience for each one in the family. They can avail themselves of the social, religious, and intellectual opportunities in their neighborhood and be a contributing part of their community. However, the large number of American families which are so limited financially that they live in poorly constructed houses in underprivileged neighborhoods need help in achieving these goals even to a minimum degree. Practical school

instruction might help bring attainment of the above goals, and greater personal stability and security, through happier home living.

Housing affects the very young. The very young child needs ample space to be active in work and play so that the activities of older children and adults will not disturb his materials. He also needs some place where he can be alone and quiet. He needs low, convenient places to keep his own things in an orderly way so that he can take out and put away his playthings and materials without disturbing his elders. Clothes closets should be planned for him on the same principles. He needs equipment gauged to his size so that he can manage alone the daily routines of eating, washing, cleaning teeth, and elimination.

If possible, a garden and sandbox and larger play equipment for outdoor exercise should be provided for the child, or he should be enrolled in a play center, kindergarten, or nursery school so that these things are part of his daily life. The child's day should be planned so that he has time to do things for himself.

Elementary children consider housing needs. A study of how the house serves the needs of people of all ages might arise in a child care class through a consideration of the needs of the young child. Attention might swing to the limitations imposed by apartment or city life on him and on the older boy or girl.

A do-something-about-it ideal might result in pupils making self-helps for young children; in the construction at home (with parents' help) of shelves, boxes on wheels, or other devices for younger children's or their own convenience. One sixth grade boy helped his father make a work bench for a younger brother to hammer on. It served as a plaything for all of them and as a place to keep necessary tools for building as other interests developed.

A study of home improvement in city schools might arise from crucial needs of children living in apartments or crowded tenements. The children need to know why the family lives

where it does, for financial, aesthetic, social, or other reasons, and to accept the situation emotionally as well as intellectually. A consideration of home-living situations might arise from a desire for certain physical improvements there. It might arise from emotional strains. An example of this is seen in the unhappiness of the ten-year-old girl who lives in a well-equipped, beautifully furnished, but too efficient, busy home. The child wishes to make things for her room as other girls do, but is told to run away and not "bother mother" when she makes feeble efforts to express herself this way. A visit of the alert teacher to the home might avert difficulties of an emotional nature, and increase good mother-daughter relationships in this home.

Problems pertaining to where to live are similar, yet different, for city and rural people. The city family must consider the rent levels in different sections of the city and how nearly the cost of the houses or apartments available meet the family's income or living standards. What concessions to make; what to do if the selected apartment is too small to meet certain needs of the family; and how the plan of the house will affect the privacy and living habits of the family are also important considerations. Problems of housing in rural areas include these and others; among them are beautification of the home grounds and the availability of a pure and adequate water supply, of good lighting, and safe waste disposal. What services to expect if one rents; what one needs to know when buying a house; when it is advisable to rent and when to own a home—all are matters of interest to people in rural, suburban, or city districts.

The children hear problems such as these discussed at home, and study of them in school is suitable if the pupils are helped to draw their conclusions in terms of what might be desirable for their own family and for the community as a whole.

The wise teacher will be informed about, and sensitive to, the limitations of the home-living situations of the members of her class. She should guide their study and discussions so

that positive attitudes are developed toward community situations—a what-might-we-do attitude, as it were. For example, there might be a real community hazard in a high percentage of traffic casualties. Study might last for days or weeks as data are assembled, and conclude in formulating plans for protecting lives through street improvements. Community leaders might then be persuaded to protect the lives of the residents by removing the main causes of accidents.

Large community improvements such as slum clearance and obtaining new housing might be too far removed from the lives of certain groups of pupils to be real to them. If new houses are being built in the immediate neighborhood, however, the children may gain an understanding of standards for housing and the laws regulating them by learning what enters into good house construction and how the city regulates it.

PUPILS MAKE MANY KINDS OF HOUSING STUDIES

A study of housing in schools is not new. The usual approach to it has been to have the children consider houses as they serve the different purposes of people. Kindergarten and primary children talk and read about houses and the services the grocer, postman, and others render the families who live in the houses. Primary groups have considered architectural differences in houses, and the kinds of houses used in other countries and climates. Many readers and storybooks have emphasized these aspects of housing, but more recent ones stress how houses are built, how to choose the new home, and how to improve the community. The educational programs of organizations such as the National Safety Council Inc., the 4H Club, and the Boy and Girl Scouts are helping the schools to develop children's sense of responsibility for home and community protection and improvement.

THE PLAYHOUSE IS USED TO TEACH HOUSING

The playhouse project has been popular with many elementary groups. Teachers of kindergarten and early primary

children, encouraging learning through imitation, have used housekeeping activities as a means of furthering the child's knowledge of his material environment and the development of his manipulative, coordinative, and expressive powers. The children wash and iron clothes, sweep, cook, and play with all kinds of miniature household equipment. The house itself is built, furnished, and then played in. The house should be built by the children, if they are to learn from it.

The following excerpts from one series of experiences illustrate the use of the playhouse.

A first grade child brought to school a Raggedy Ann book, and asked Miss Bowman, her teacher, to read it to the class. All the children liked the story, and a second child said she had a Raggedy Ann doll. She brought the doll to school at Miss Bowman's suggestion. The children liked the doll so much that they wished to keep her at school and to make a house for her to stay in. As they talked about it their ideas grew, and soon space in one corner of the homeroom was set aside for the house. Materials were collected and the house began to take shape, in proportions large enough so that the children could play in it. Problems of what and how much material to get had to be figured; boxes and boards had to be located, and measurements made. What each child did was recorded by the teacher as the house progressed. She asked the children if they could make a story about the house. They liked the idea and what they told was set up in one-line sentences so all might read them.

Interest was sustained. Children's interests are not transitory when the activity engaged in is challenging to them. Interest in this project extended into the next half year, included many activities in and about the house, and turned to some study of house furnishing and the building of real houses.

Articles are made for the house. A rug was made from used cloth which the children dyed with vegetable dyes which they made. A kitchen was added to the house to hold some clay dishes one child had made. These and other activities gave rise to color study, arithmetic related to the measuring and cutting jobs, and verbal expression of what they were doing. There were related experiences which were meaningful. Music was practiced for use at the housewarming; visitors told of how raw materials were

developed into the forms used for buildings; trips were made to see real houses which were being built in the community.

What was learned. The little house served as a means of making real to the children what they were learning. Aside from factual learnings, of which there were many, the children learned to work alone, and together on their projects, to take turns, to have pride in their own and each other's work. They gained some appreciation of the work that is needed for construction and, in general terms, about raw materials which are used in house building.³

SCHOOLS DEVELOP NEW APPROACHES TO HOUSING STUDY

An extremely natural approach to the study of houses, homes, and housing is being used in certain parts of the country today, and that is a consideration of the child's own house and home as he is living in it. The approach seems a valid one because the house is important to his parents and is talked about and planned for at home. As the children get into their own projects their awareness of larger home and community problems grows. They also may see movies showing group housing, slum clearance, and neighborhood safety measures and beautification. They may watch new houses being built, and questions may arise from their observations about many phases of building.

In many cities, community-minded groups have worked recently with local, national, and city agencies to improve living levels of the people. The several state experimental programs to improve housing—sponsored by the Sloan Foundation for Education—have been planned on an educational basis. In Florida, for example, educators in selected rural school districts, where better housing is a great need, have worked with specialists from the state university and state department of education in surveying the needs and beginning programs in various communities. The method most used in Florida has

³ Ruth Manning Hockett, *Teachers Guide to Child Development*, pp. 60-69.

been the development of graded literature to be used in teaching specific knowledges and skills needed on improvement projects. For example, instructions are given for repairing or building screens, clothes and dish closets, tables, water systems, or entire houses.

Teachers in schools assisting in experimenting with the approach have developed literature suited to their own community and grade level and have proved its efficiency by using the materials to direct actual home improvement projects.

The plan is somewhat as follows. In the first grade, the family and the care of each room in the house is talked about; the children build a sandbox yard and house, and practice keeping the classroom tidy and clean. In the second grade, materials that go into building a home are studied, and modern homes under construction are visited. The third grade concentrates on preparing places for the children to keep their lunches during the morning, or on making the room attractive in other ways. In the fourth grade emphasis is on how the house should suit the daily needs of the people living in it, and this study is correlated with a study of houses in other lands. In the fifth and sixth grades, the housing of the particular school community is made the basis of studying ways in which each child's home can be made more suitable for his family.⁴ Beginning with the seventh grade, greater differentiation occurs between the projects undertaken by boys and girls, the boys continuing with heavier construction projects and the girls making more detailed study of room furnishings and housekeeping.

The incomes of the families in each community are a major consideration, and projects are selected which will ease the family's daily work in the home, and give them more leisure and comforts.

The studies are progressively more difficult and extend through the twelfth grade, where the topic for the year is the theme "Improving Houses to Improve the Community."

⁴ Leon N. Henderson, *Florida Program for the Improvement of Schools: Housing in All the Grades—Teachers Guide for 1942-43, Part III.*

The criticism might be made that the children would become disinterested in having the same theme carried through every year. This might happen but for the fact that the study in the assisting schools has been part of a community housing interest in which the children's parents are studying how to improve or build their homes, and are actually improving them. In the schools the pupils are helping with the management and improvement of the school, and are being inspired through school projects to undertake like ones which pertain to their homes. When the subject is read about in literature, talked about, illustrated on the screen, and given daily attention, motivation is adequate.

Results from the projects—a review. The programs have been successful. Older pupils are getting a vision of community services in which they can join; in elementary schools they serve to teach children to read, write, do arithmetic, and to be cooperative home members by helping improve their own homes. Each child's accomplishment in actual home improvement is recorded by a simple questionnaire. The questionnaires are filed and they direct the selection and carrying out of subsequent improvements. Where several children in a family have been carrying a project simultaneously, remarkable improvements have been made. Parents have used the school literature, and some pamphlets have been specially prepared for their use. These, easily read and understood, extend the instruction to larger house-building problems, landscaping, drainage, and the like.

PUPILS IN MANY SCHOOLS STUDY THE ECONOMICS OF HOUSING

Many schools are situated in localities where a unified school-home-community housing study seems at present to be impractical. Individuals and groups can, however, accomplish a great deal.

One fourth grade planned an assembly program on better housing standards which might be sought for their city. At this time they discussed ways and means for making houses

measure up to the minimum standards then held by the city.⁵ A class consideration of city living areas might include a study of U. S. Government reports on programs of slum improvement and new housing projects.

By the time the child reaches the fifth or sixth grade, he may be interested in trying to make his home more livable. Boys and girls should have opportunity to learn good standards for heating, lighting, and ventilating homes of today. Repairing electrical devices used in the home is an interesting project through which to learn about electricity. Home architecture in America and other countries is of interest to older pupils when it is studied in relation to the suitability of the house to the demands of modern living in the particular geographical location, climate, and neighborhoods being considered.

Pupils of upper elementary years like to study graphs on national incomes, relative living expenditures, and similar comparisons.

Figuring the cost of moderate-priced furnishing for a small home might be suited to upper elementary pupils, depending on their needs for such considerations. Caution should be used in taking up school time for such a study lest the result be an exercise in wishful thinking. It might, however, be an excellent consumer-buying study.

Social concepts should be emphasized. By linking home improvements with school study the pupils may be helped to an awareness of the value of the cooperative effort needed to carry on family life. A consideration of the use of living spaces may cause a pupil to try to get along better with the brother or sister who shares the bedroom with him. Awareness of personal responsibility at home may lead individual pupils to an analysis of why energy, time, or money is at low ebb in their home.

At the same time, the child is getting a concept of the home as the place where shelter, comfort, food, clothing,

⁵ Ruth Wood Gavian, *Education for Economic Competence*, p. 85.

leisure, and understanding center, and he is learning that money and work are needed to provide them.

If the pupil is permitted to help repair or build any part of his home or the grounds around it, he is likely to identify himself more closely with it. The same is true with the community. The following experience illustrates how a school project well motivated and directed was healthful, recreational, and a source of personal and community satisfaction.

A sixth grade gang that was chiefly to blame for the abuse of one school's playground was led by an inspired teacher into preparing the ground around the front and side of the building for landscaping. The boys spaded up the plots of ground and treated the soil before seeding it and planting a few shrubs. They cared for the new grass and staked it off to protect it from the casual trespasser. Their own trespassing ceased, the caretakers worked off energy and were proud of their school, and the entire school and its neighbors were happy in the new improvements.

The same results may be obtained at home if the child is tactfully led to do things. If he is put in charge of the lawn, a boy may acquire a sense of responsibility and pride. Although money rewards should not be a chief aim, if a boy is paid for specially hard and occasional jobs, he can help finance certain of his personal needs and learn to handle money. The teacher can help parents to dignify such work by recognizing it as one expression of ability to assume responsibility.

TYPICAL UNDERSTANDINGS CHILDREN MAY ACCEPT THROUGH ROUNDED EXPERIENCES IN HOUSEKEEPING

Each person takes some responsibility for the housekeeping. Primary pupils may think it is fun to work with the other children to keep the classroom orderly by hanging up their wraps, putting books and personal belongings in places assigned them, and helping to "straighten" the room. If helped to make the transition, they may try to apply these habits in home living. They may begin to understand that work is

needed to run the home and to learn something of the services the outside world furnishes it. They may begin to see the interdependency of the family and the community in matters of health, garbage disposal, and fuel and other commodities the family needs.

Suitable working plans, equipment, and materials are needed for housekeeping efficiency. Pupils of the intermediate and upper elementary years should begin to accept their share in more detailed responsibilities. They should know the correct tools and methods to use in cleaning different kinds of floor coverings, woods, and furniture. Well-directed interesting projects should help them to do home housekeeping tasks better and dislike them less. They may learn desirable qualities to look for in mops, brooms, brushes, cleaning reagents, and other tools, and acquire an appreciation of the quality and cost values; also they may learn that time, money, and work are saved if better grades of tools and supplies are bought.

Through group planning and preparing for parties, and cleaning up after them, they may learn how efficiency reduces the work and increases the pleasure of entertaining. If in home practice they can apply this principle, they may realize at least three things: first, that by being responsible, they receive more privileges; second, that if they help at home, the grown-ups may have more time to spend with them; and third, that if their regular jobs are done cheerfully and on time, mother or dad is likely to be less tired and in a better humor.

They should understand that a plan for work and a time budget may help one to do the necessary things and make more time for fun, and that housekeeping is more quickly and smoothly done if each family member takes responsibility for certain chores.

They should understand that their part in the housekeeping should include keeping themselves and their clothes as clean as possible, and "picking up" after their games or hobbies are laid aside.

By arranging flowers and making or arranging decorative things for the rooms at school and at home the children's artistic appreciations may continue to develop.

The pupils should begin to understand that city or local community housekeeping problems are similar to those of a family, only magnified many times, i.e., they include a concern for the health and protection of its members, the sanitation and beautification of the surroundings, and the provision of regulations which help all citizens make these possible.

TYPICAL UNDERSTANDINGS CHILDREN MAY ACCEPT THROUGH ROUNDED EXPERIENCES IN HOUSING

The home is the center for the family's life.

The younger child learns first that the house is where he eats, sleeps, is cared for, and receives the love and security he needs.

The school child should begin to see the house as the home—a center for the family group, and for extending hospitality to one's friends; a place where one's health, well-being, and security are assured.

Cooperative planning and work may make the home more efficient and beautiful.

The children should know that the house should have space for all activities needed for physical and general well-being (emotional health), or should be so situated that adequate substitutes may be obtained.

The pupils should know that home is more satisfying if it is furnished to suit the habits and convenience of the family; that the simplest furnishings may be attractive if they are clean and arranged so that they can be used most easily.

The children should be developing ideas of what furnishings contribute to the usefulness of the home, and to the family's comfort and pleasure.

They should begin to understand that values other than money influence where families live, and may be more important.

They may learn that, by honest city planning and effort, slums may be removed.

They may learn many details of house construction, and how to make needed repairs and improvements in the house.

They should learn that "the good home should be healthful and sanitary, clean, orderly, and in keeping with the family finances; beautiful to look upon; and in all things thoroughly in good taste."⁶

They should understand and accept the fact that each one has responsibility for helping to have a democratic community, whether it is in school or outside of school, by being a cooperative, responsible citizen.

These are but examples of what might be learned about housekeeping, housing, and homes. No child could master all of the concepts suggested, but each could be expected to have gained greater ability to think critically about his share in making his house a home and his school or immediate neighborhood a good place to live in.

BOOKS ABOUT HOUSES AND FAMILIES

Books for the Preschool Child

BURTON, VIRGINIA LEE, *The Little House*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1942. The little house in the country becomes a wee house in the city surrounded by skyscrapers. How she likes it, and how she finally comes into her own fascinate children.

DALGLIESH, ALICE, *The Choosing Book*. New York: Macmillan, 1932. Teddy and Ruth help to choose the new house, their pets, and while shopping with mother help her select their toys, a suit for Teddy, and a dress for Ruth.

Books for the Six- to Nine-Year-Olds

HANNA, PAUL H., and WILLIAM S. GRAY (Everyday Life Stories of the Curriculum Foundation Series), *Peter's Family*. New York: Scott, Foresman, 1935. The story includes the entire family and tells of the selection of the new house, Peter's arrival, and subsequent events.

MCCOY, NELLIE, *The Tale of Good Cat Jupie*. New York: Mac-

⁶ Maude Richman Calvert, *First Course in Homemaking*, p. 348.

millan, 1926. A highly imaginative story in which Jupie, endowed with human wisdom, helps Jean do many things.

MARSHALL, DEAN, and THERESA KALEB, *A House for Elizabeth*. New York: Dutton, 1941. Elizabeth's family move to West Virginia from the city. Plans to build a new house are abandoned when Elizabeth discovers the old grey stone house which is just the home they have longed for.

NEWBERRY, CLARE, *April's Kittens*. New York: Harper, 1940. About the problems April faces in choosing just the right kitten for living in a one-cat apartment.

Books for the Nine- to Eleven-Year-Olds

BIANCO, MARGERY, *Green Grows the Garden*. New York: Macmillan, 1936. An informal treatment of the vegetable patch and garden which appeals to real gardeners.

CONKLIN, GROFF, *All About Houses*. New York: Julian Messner, 1939. Treats of the technical steps in the actual construction of a modern house from excavation for the cellar to finishing the woodwork.

DALGLIESH, ALICE, *America Builds Homes*. New York: Charles Scribner's, 1938. Tells how the first settlers came to live in this country and shows types of early American homes.

SEREDY, KATE, *Tree for Peter*. New York: Viking Press, 1941. A beautiful tale of what can happen to human beings who catch a vision of better living. Shantytown becomes a thing of the past under Peter's small spade's influence.

Books for the Eleven- to Thirteen-Year-Olds

IRWIN, GRACE, *The Happy Tower*. New York: Lothrop, 1940. A large family of children and their parents move to a new house in the country and have much fun there.

JOHNSON, WILLIAM, *Widening Trails*. New York: Lyons and Carnahan, 1939. Vividly told stories of different types of homes, from life in the jungle to that in the city.

McSWIGAN, MARIE, *Five on a Merry-Go-Round*. New York: Dutton, 1943. One family takes up its abode in a deserted circus wagon and thus solves its housing and living problems.

YATES, ELIZABETH, *Patterns on the Wall*. New York: Knopf, 1943. Tells of the use of decoration in early American homes in relating the life story of a talented boy.

RECOMMENDED READINGS

- AGAN, TESSIE, *The House*. New York: J. B. Lippincott, 1939. 620pp.
- ARONOVICI, CAROL, *Housing the Masses*. New York: John Wiley, 1939. 291pp.
- BROWN, MURIEL, "Speaking of Housing Again," *Journal of Home Economics*, 32:7:432-438, September, 1940.
- COLLINS, FREDERICK, *Simplified Mechanics*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1939. 317pp.
- DUNLOP, HAZEL P., *Let's Arrange Flowers*. New York: Harper, 1943. 162pp.
- NATIONAL RESOURCES PLANNING BOARD. Reports:
 Consumer Expenditures in the U. S., 1935-1936; 1939.
 Our National Resources, 1940.
- NICKELL, PAULENA, and JEAN MUIR DORSEY, *Management in Family Living*. New York: John Wiley, 1942. 477pp.
- WAUGH, ALICE, *Planning the Little House*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1939. 267pp.
- WHITMAN, ROGER B., *First Aid to the Ailing House*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938. 349pp.
- WHITON, SHERRILL, *Elements of Interior Decoration*. New York: J. B. Lippincott, 1937. 838pp.

TEACHING AIDS

- AHERN, ELEANOR, *The Way We Wash Our Clothes*. M. Bartows, 1941. 140pp. \$2.00.
- BALDERSTON, LYDIA RAY, *Housekeeping Workbook: How to Do It*. New York: J. B. Lippincott, 1944. 100pp. \$1.00.
- BOARD OF EDUCATION, CHICAGO, ILL., BUREAU OF CURRICULUM, *Home Mechanics Laboratory Series of Bulletins* (50¢ each, supplied to libraries):
 Home Care and Furnishings, Nos. 1, 2; 1940.
 Household Utensils and Appliances, 1940.
- JENSEN, MILTON B., MILDRED R. JENSEN, and LOUISA M. ZILLER, *Fundamentals of Home Economics*. New York: Macmillan, 1935. 417pp. \$1.68.
- MARVIN, LINDA, *Housekeeping Made Easy*. New York: Vanguard Press, 1943. 422pp. \$1.98.
- MATTHEWS, MARY L., *The House and Its Care*, rev. ed. Boston: Little, Brown, 1940. 371pp. \$1.76.
- NEW YORK HERALD TRIBUNE, HOME INSTITUTE, *America's Housekeeping Book*. New York: Charles Scribner's, 1941. 607pp. \$2.50.
- POWELL, LYDIA, *The Attractive Home*. New York: Macmillan, 1940. 122pp. 65¢.
- SMULTZ, HAZEL, *Housing and the Home*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1939. 420pp. \$2.00.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, Farmer's Bulletin 1460, *Simple Plumbing Repairs in the Home*, 1936. 15¢.

TEACHING AIDS FOR PUPILS' USE

FLORIDA UNIVERSITY, Project in Applied Economics, College of Education, Gainesville, Florida. (Materials are mimeographed or multilithed. A few examples only are given here.)

A New House Is Fun, ELISE ROGERS and VIOLET WARD, Grade 2. 45¢.

Our Beautiful Yard, CLARA M. OLSON, Grade 3. 40¢.

Your House and Mine, CLARA M. OLSON, Grade 4. 40¢.

Insects Beware, EMMA LEE LOFTEN, Grade 5. 20¢.

Using Tools, ORLO M. SHULTZ, Intermediate Grades. 45¢.

Let's Work Magic, KATHRYN E. REED, Home Economics Classes, Grades 7 and 8. 35¢.

JORDAN, HELEN, M. LOUISA ZILLER, and JOHN F. BROWN, *Home and Family*. New York: Macmillan, 1935. 426pp. \$1.60.

KELIHER, ALICE, and OTHERS, *Household Workers* (picture fact books), New York: Harper, 1941. 56pp. 88¢.

PEET, CREIGHTON, *This Is the Way We Build a Home*. New York: Holt, 1940. 126pp. \$2.00.

WILSON, HOWARD E., FLORENCE E. WILSON, and BESSIE ERB, *Ways of Living in Many Lands; and Living in the Age of Machines*. New York: American, 1937. 305pp. \$1.16.

FILM

Colonial Williamsburg. Colonial Williamsburg, Williamsburg, Va. 1943. Apply.

IX. Learning How to Dress

People like to be comfortably and well dressed, and clothes can give a person social status and an improved appearance as well as protection and comfort. A person's appearance depends upon more than the amount of money he spends on his clothes and his taste in dress. For example, grooming and posture play a large part in one's appearance, and the activities engaged in daily and the general pattern of a person's life affect his manner of dress. If one knows how to buy and care for his clothes, he can control to some extent their wearing quality, appearance, and style. One's attitude toward clothes is important. If one is inadequately dressed for the life one leads, feelings of inferiority or self-consciousness may develop. Correct dress helps to give a person social poise and grace.

A study of dress helps children to see their clothes in good relation to other aspects of living, to understand their families' clothing problems, and to carry their share of responsibility for their clothes. A study of art in dress may help a child develop good taste in clothing selection, and express his personality more truly through his dress.

THE HOME ESTABLISHES FIRST ATTITUDES TOWARD DRESS

First attitudes toward clothes are learned in the home during the toddling period when the child learns to take off, then to put on, different articles of clothing; and to like some clothes better than others. Teachers of preschool children note a wide range in children's ability and initiative in dressing themselves, and a close relation between the success of their efforts and their emotional poise. Adults who teach the child at home and in the early school years can help him by

seeing that his clothes meet necessary physical and aesthetic standards and are so constructed that he can easily dress himself.

To be physically beneficial, a child's clothes should be of the fabric and weight to give him the best protection against the weather and temperature, should fit at every point, be large enough to be put on easily yet not be cumbersome, should not bind, and should hang from the shoulder rather than from the waist. The materials of which they are made should be soft and pliable but sturdy, and easily washed. Shoes should have firm, flexible soles, be snug at the heel and arch, allow toes to rest in an easy position, and be long enough to permit the foot to grow. Socks and stockings should fit the foot without being stretched.

Attractively designed clothes, i.e., clothes simple enough to prevent him from being self-conscious, and pleasing in color and design, give a child emotional satisfaction. From the educational viewpoint, a child's clothes should fasten in front with buttons large enough for him to manage alone. The best blouses have fullness across the back and chest, and a pocket for the kerchief. Large sleeves and armholes permit ease in motion. Plackets in trousers and panties should be large enough to enable the child to go to the toilet by himself.

INDEPENDENCE IN DRESSING IS LEARNED

Given clothes which meet these minimum standards and a few simple directions as he masters the intricacies of dressing, the young child is likely to be happy about his clothes and dressing, and increasingly independent in managing them.

Opportunity to choose what to wear from among his clothes is the child's next step in managing his dress. (Provision of accessible places for keeping his belongings helps him to find and choose what to wear.) If the clothes provided for him are equally acceptable and spoken of not as "old," "better," or "good," but as "best for what you are going to be doing," "suitable to the weather today," or "so you will be

more comfortable," the child learns how to decide what to wear.

As the child matures he can take greater responsibility for making choices among garments, first in going shopping with his parents and being satisfied with their choices for him because he understands why the selection is made; later, in making his own choice between two similar articles, then between two unlike ones.¹ Judgment is developed through making choices, sometimes succeeding in, and, again, sometimes failing to make good choices.

Planning for, buying, and keeping the clothing of the family in good condition is a major problem for most families, especially when there are growing boys and girls and the clothing budget is limited. If self-management of his clothes has been encouraged by the family, the influence on the nine- and ten-year-old of what the gang is wearing may be offset by admitting the child to the family deliberations when the year's clothing needs are discussed. Most children will respond to this appeal to their judgment. It may help them to recognize the rights of others in the family and to be interested in stretching their share of the clothing money and in getting their money's worth when shopping. Many children of eleven to thirteen have their own allowance and are able to assume responsibility for choosing at least part of their wardrobe. Parents who permit their children to make their own choices, under guidance, go far toward teaching them values to look for, and how to proportion their expenditures.

SCHOOL STUDY MAY INCREASE KNOWLEDGE OF DRESS

Most elementary schools teach about the sources of fibers and their manufacture into yarns and fabrics for clothing and household use. The care of one's clothes and how to buy and wear them is not so generally included in pupils' study. Expe-

¹ Paulena Nickell and Jean Muir Dorsey, *Management in Family Living*, pp. 394-395.

riences in these aspects of clothing and with those which arise naturally in relation to grooming and dress design might well be a part of each child's general education.

LIFE SITUATIONS PROVIDE LEADS TO STUDY

Alert teachers discover ways of teaching many things about clothes through day-by-day occurrences.

Constant mislaying or loss of caps, coats, or galoshes furnishes the teacher with a lead for introducing the idea of assuming responsibility for one's clothes. Daily practice at school in keeping clothes in the place designated for them is possible only when adequate lockers are provided for coats, hats, overshoes, and sportswear. A primary teacher in a well-to-do district was appalled at the pupils' attitude of "well, it's gone, now my dad will have to buy me a new one." She tactfully raised the question of clothing costs through an arithmetic question, and guided the pupils' estimation of the minimum amount it must cost their parents to dress them annually. Through their analysis the children began to see that if they had a clothing allowance and managed to get along with fewer rather than extra clothes, they might have more money to spend for other things.

If consideration of personal responsibility for one's clothes is accompanied, in the intermediate years, with projects in which the pupils make articles such as handkerchiefs or stocking boxes, tie or shoe racks, or some other article to use in caring for their clothes at home, the children may be encouraged to make a further study of dress, or at least to try to be better groomed..

Children who have a clothes allowance appreciate help in knowing how to get the most for their money when shopping. Questions about clothes which must be considered include: how many changes of underwear are needed in order to be clean; how many sweaters and skirts are needed; what kind of coat should be bought when only one can be afforded, and how much should be paid for it; when should one make and

when buy a dress or blouse; how does one choose ties, scarfs, stockings, and socks.

These and similar questions, which everyone has, might serve as a means of studying the ethics of shopping or language use as well as solving arithmetical problems. The smaller problems might lead the pupils to consider what a person on a limited budget or in certain occupations needs to spend annually on clothes. Class discussion of such problems, tactfully handled, helps pupils to get a balance between their desires and needs. Their considerations will be of practical value only if the prevalent income levels of the community and the approximate proportions which families there spend for clothing are used as bases for problem solving.

The current fashion in dress becomes more important to pupils in the intermediate and upper elementary years. If a teacher knows the styles popular with the younger generation she is teaching, she may help the boy and girl develop artistic standards within the orbit of current fashions. Teachers have lost pupils' confidence by failing to feel the atmosphere of disapproval caused by their "old-fashioned" ideas. At this age the pupils can more nearly understand the interrelationships between different aspects of dress, and how clothes may affect their social acceptance and personal satisfaction.

A tear or rip in a child's clothes occurs, and he needs immediate help in repairing it. If simple facilities are made available in the homeroom he can make his own repairs under the teacher's guidance and without disturbing other pupils. The more extensive damages can be mended in the home-making room.

Some children must help with laundry in the home; girls especially are responsible for washing and ironing their own clothes, or for ironing these and household linens. Learning best ways to launder at school might ease their weekly home chores by providing them with a knowledge of cleaning reagents, methods of handling garments, and different kinds of textiles.

A need or desire for clothes interests some pupils in learning how to sew. Frequently children discover at an early age that the ability to sew helps them to be better dressed on less money than if all their clothes are bought ready-made. Children also enjoy sewing for the fun of it, and to make things to use in their play. At times the beauty of materials or the desire to imitate what others are making intrigues them. If they are interested, boys as well as girls should have opportunity to sew, making garments or at least repairing their own clothes.

THE USE AND CARE OF CLOTHES ARE INTERDEPENDENT

The use, care, and repair of clothes are so interwoven that concepts of responsibility for each are best learned by having experience with all of them daily, if possible. For example: The child of six and seven views the weather and is helped to dress accordingly. He is guided to remove his clothes carefully and hang them up to "take care of them." The eight- and nine-year-old learns to distinguish between work, play, and school clothes and to wear them at the right time. He learns to hang his clothes on hangers to help them keep their shape, to sew on buttons, to clean and polish his shoes. He begins to know differences between fibers, and may study why the fabrics of which different clothes are made affect one's comfort in warm, cold, and stormy weather. The clothes moth may be considered in correlation with housing studies of where and how to keep clothes.

The ten- to twelve-year-olds may make experiments comparing cotton, linen, rayon, wool, and silk fibers, to discover why they are suitable for different seasons of the year and for different purposes.

Shoes, overshoes, and stockings bear thoughtful study. Certain schools have set up kits for the repair of shoes and rubbers, and have taught the boys how to mend both kinds

of wear.² The protective and comfort features of shoes and stockings may be learned through a study of foot hygiene and posture of the body. Each child might study his own standing posture and decide if his shoes give evidence of correct walking position. He might make a pedigraph of his feet and measure his shoes for size. Older pupils like to delve into the construction of shoes. An old shoe may be torn apart for study, after which rules to be followed when buying and caring for one's shoes may be set up. The wearing quality of leathers has been studied on visits to the local cobbler who has described different qualities of leather and demonstrated how to clean and polish shoes. In summarizing such studies the children might set up rules to follow in the selection, wear, and care of their clothes.

LAUNDERING IS COMBINED WITH TEXTILE STUDY

The idea of wearing clothes for protection is closely associated with study of differing qualities of the fibers, so that as pupils learn the uses of different fibers, methods of cleaning them may also be learned.

When many children in a school district come to school poorly groomed and wearing soiled or badly worn clothes, a study of the complete process of laundering is valuable to them. Demonstrations given for younger children by the teacher or an older pupil on how to wash sweaters, blouses, and trousers may inspire individual children to launder some garments in the school laboratory or at home. In underprivileged neighborhoods these experiences might be correlated with a shower-taking schedule and garment repairs. The homeroom, hygiene, and homemaking teachers working together would make certain that such experiences were correlated.

Pupils of the upper elementary years readily learn the best methods for laundering clothes and household articles, and

² Maurice Morrill, Director, Sloan Foundation Experiment, University of Vermont, *Suggestions for Presenting Clothing Information to Vermont School Children*.

the correct way to iron. A series of experiences on the removal of stains, the action of different soaps, hard and soft water, and heat on the different fabrics is valuable if it is motivated by the need and desire actually to remove spots or to renovate some garments actually needing cleansing. A laundry unit of several lessons, which is an outgrowth of a personal grooming study, of an analysis of textile fibers, or of laundering the school linens, might be undertaken.

In the intermediate and upper elementary years interesting correlations may be made with science experiences. In the latter, greater emphasis should be placed on the effect of different soaps and degrees of heat on the cloth and the more difficult processes of spot removal and pressing. The pupils can collect their own data from their experiments, make their deductions, and learn the sequences of the laundry processes. Reference books, illustrated articles, and study guides are of help in promoting independent study (see Appendix, Exhibit E).

Studies of laundering processes may have an immediate money value for the pupils. Quality of materials may be proved by sun and soap tests on samples of cloth before selecting material for garment construction. An eighth grade group studied printed cotton for this reason before they bought it for dresses. The pupils prepared charts which showed the effect of exposure of different priced goods to the sun and soap. The result of the tests was shown to two local storekeepers from whom the materials had been bought. One merchant cooperated with the school by displaying the pupils' exhibit in his store window, saying that it would be to his advantage to sell better materials, and that the tests showed the big difference a variation of a few cents in price makes. The pupils bought the better grade of cloth, making closer than usual calculations on yardage needed, so that overall costs of their dresses were kept as low as possible. Many other customers, seeing the exhibits, bought the better quality of cotton print from that store.

THE WELL-DRESSED PERSON IS A WELL-GROOMED ONE

Good grooming has its place in child life although there are times in work and play when one is wholesomely dirty.

The habit of keeping himself and his clothes reasonably clean, if acquired early, makes a child acceptable to others and eases his social adjustment. At school the homeroom, hygiene, and homemaking teacher might share in watching for opportunities for teaching good grooming. For example, having a clean handkerchief and learning to use it might be a needed experience for some children. One primary teacher, noticing that many pupils lacked handkerchiefs, let the group fringe bright-colored cotton squares to make hankies like hers. As they worked, they learned more about color in choosing the cloth which looked pleasing to them, and had experiences in cleanliness and good grooming. The children made more than one handkerchief each and were allowed to use the laundry tub to wash them if this was not done at home.

The school has a responsibility for making the child like to be well washed and for providing possibilities for him to be so, especially in the case of children who have inadequate encouragement and facilities to bathe at home. This might necessitate the provision of more showers in many schools, or more time for the children to use them. It may also be necessary in some districts for children to learn at school how to shampoo the hair and care for the nails.

A daily comment recognizing his improved grooming is sufficient to encourage the young child. With this as a background, pupils in later primary and elementary years, whose activities are becoming more varied and more complicated, may be motivated to work for high personal standards of health, hygiene, and grooming by literature, posters, and moving pictures on the subject. Materials which have a pre-vocational and vocational emphasis appeal to the nine- to thirteen-year-olds.

Procedures similar to these might be used to encourage good posture. A child might analyze his sitting posture and rate himself by a scale which has been worked out by the group. This scale might also include standing and walking positions. Frequently a progress chart, in which are a limited number of improvements he wishes to make, is set up by the child and kept for several weeks. The chart may be used as a basis for analyzing his accomplishments when he discusses them with his teacher.

MAKING THINGS BY SEWING IS AN ART

From the simplest weaving of the kindergarten to the more intricate construction of decorative articles and clothing, sewing is a form of personal expression which has utilitarian as well as educational values.

As the young child sews for the fun of making things, he will learn to sew most quickly by making what he wants, working out his own methods as he goes. Specific processes should be learned when the making of an article demands certain methods for good construction which are gauged to the child's ability and understanding. Working models help children visualize how to design and construct their projects. There is danger that creative power and initiative will be limited by them, so care is needed in their use. Laborious jobs such as long seams on voluminous garments are time and interest killers. The ability to use the thimble, scissors, and sewing machine encourages interest by developing confidence. Ease in manipulation and good standards of workmanship will be gained as the pupil strives to improve his own results by comparing them with better ones.

Progress is gradual. The use of large crewel needles and yarns in the kindergarten and early school years begins to familiarize the child with color, pattern, and the general process of sewing. In the primary groups, form and color are experienced when things are made for the doll house and by dressing dolls or making puppets.

*Forming the Habit of
Sharing Early*



*The Boy Leaves for School
with His Bed Made*

*The Stepladder Adds
Interest to the Job*

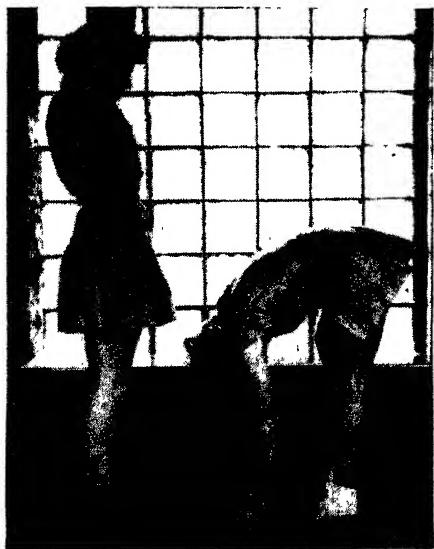




COURTESY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, PLATTSBURG, N. Y.

Kindergarten Children Busy with Personal Grooming

*The Charm Club Practising
Good Posture*



*Exercise as an Aid
to Posture*



*The Brownies Making
Hiking Aprons*



*The Sixth Grade Making
Cooking Aprons*



Stringing the Puppets

COSTUMES OF OTHER PEOPLES ARE STUDIED

A more advanced development of this kind of project is seen in the intermediate years when dolls are dressed in character. Models of character dolls might be used to illustrate historical or geographical studies, and the pupils might be inspired to reproduce them. No project should be a matter-of-course one, required of all children in the group. The interest of some children might turn them to studying the songs, homes, or food of the people of the period being studied. In such a case, the class might divide into groups, each one studying and presenting to the others one phase of the culture. Another group of children might be inspired by the character dolls to reproduce costumes for themselves to wear in a play. The idea is not a novel one except that such costumes are frequently made by teachers and parents of the children, and the experience evolved so rapidly that the children do not gain the import of it or any satisfaction in creating a costume effect.

Children of nine years are able to assemble costumes for their dramatizations from borrowed articles; ten-year-olds can construct simple garments by machine if they have some help. In each instance, a surprising amount of good taste in dress and artistic feeling for harmony and contrasts will develop from work with the textiles.

The urge to sew by machine may occur from the need to make play costumes, a desire for a personal garment, or from an interest in mastering the machine. Ten- and eleven-year-olds can operate the sewing machine with accuracy. If machine and hand stitching are learned at the same time, the pupil learns to judge when it is most desirable to use each method. Pupils like to make many things of use in the school and home, like short-cuts to the desired goal, and soon recognize busy work in sewing processes. For example, the two or three sides of a hot pan holder can be stitched by machine for speed's sake, turned, fitted with a filler-pad, and the fourth side overhanded.

PUPILS, THEIR MOTHERS, AND THEIR TEACHERS SELECT THE PROJECTS

In schools where handicrafts are an accepted part of pupils' home life, children seem to like to knit, crochet, and sew. If pupils become interested in room decoration to the extent of making such articles as wall hangings, pillows, table scarfs, or other decorative things, their enthusiasm often extends to making them for their homes, and their dislike for home-care is overcome to a degree. It is a teacher's responsibility to help a child to select projects within his ability range, as children are likely to become over-ambitious in their choices and then to weary of them. Modest projects of this kind are successful, especially when the teacher practices these arts herself. In certain districts the practice of handicraft arts in the school serves to reduce barriers between pupils' mothers and teachers.

Pupils who do not become interested in making household articles may dress dolls for themselves or for gifts, make stuffed animals for children, or make a variety of articles for hospitals.

The traditional curriculum has tended to have girls expect to make aprons, towels, and headbands before using foods equipment. Simple devices for restraining stray locks are now substituted for the headband which often refuses to stay in place, thus defeating its purpose. It is more sanitary and economical for the other articles to be part of school property and kept clean by the school. If pupils wish to have an outfit for themselves, an apron may be a desirable project. A simply designed, colorful, gingham or print apron may combine in its making and wearing art, textile, sewing, and laundry experiences.

Parents should have part in the development of the projects in art, clothing, and sewing. If they are encouraged to come to informal planning meetings where the pupils tell about and show what they are doing or wish to do, parents may be encouraged to contribute suggestions and to help in the class-

room. Teachers might thus expediently avoid post-project criticism.

A teacher who had not been successful in attracting many pupils' mothers to the school tried an ingenious substitute for the mother-teacher-pupil conference. After the class had considered carefully the garments they thought they needed or wished to make, each pupil listed three she desired most. She made a written record of her choices describing each garment, the amount of material needed for its construction, and its cost. The lists were carried home to be used in consultation with the parents. The mother's opinion of the relative value of each article for the girl and authorization of the one she preferred to have made were requested. The signed lists and their comments were used in re-evaluating the pupils' estimates and starting the projects. A major guarantee of satisfaction at the conclusion of a project is that the pupil, his parents, and the teacher have seen a need for it, that the pupil wishes to do it, and that he has a large part in planning what to do and how to do it.

The question may be asked: "Where do the boys stand in this picture?" The answer differs according to locality and custom. Because of the tradition that only girls need to know how to sew, school instruction in clothing and the arts and sciences related to it has largely been restricted to them. Boys, however, like to construct costumes for their plays and to make gifts and things for the home. They need to know how to darn and to make rudimentary repairs on their clothes. A knowledge of textiles, of standards of workmanship, and of repairing may help a boy to be interested in being well groomed and well dressed. Mediums for learning need not be grimly serious to be effective. The following experiences were engaged in by a mixed group of pupils.

A SEVENTH GRADE MAKES CHRISTMAS GIFTS

A group of seventh grade pupils were talking among themselves about Christmas—what they wanted to receive and what gifts they

would give to their family members. Their teacher said: "Why don't you make some of your gifts?" She had been visiting in the homes of her pupils and knew that although money was more plentiful than it had been, many of the homes were simply furnished and handmade articles probably would be welcomed. She knew also that most of the children had younger brothers and sisters and that in some cases the clothing worn was of cheap, short-lasting quality, so that almost anything the pupils chose to make would be acceptable.

The pupils liked the idea of making Christmas gifts, but doubted their ability to make anything nice enough, for they were beginning to have standards approaching adults' estimate of quality. At their teacher's suggestion, however, each one listed those to whom he wished to give presents, and the probable amount of money he would have to spend. Each one was to seek his parents' suggestions and approval. The following day each placed the name of one person on each of three slips of paper and drew from them one for whom he would make something.

In the meantime their teacher consulted with the homemaking and art teachers, and together they gathered up samples of useful and beautiful articles which the pupils might make. These were placed on the table and they made quite an array—a parchment-like lamp shade and book cover, a handwoven scarf, glove cases made of chintz, knitted mittens, an infant cap and jacket made of flannelette, models of animals of chintz stuffed with beans, and covered utility boxes. The approximate costs of the articles were listed according to the kind of materials used, and patterns for them were at hand.

The children admired the articles, then discussed the suitability of their choices for the one for whom they wished to make the gift. When final decisions were reached, the class divided itself into groups making like things. Papers, pencils, and rulers were ready for preliminary planning. The teacher had a tentative outline of steps for making each object and the approximate time it should take to complete it. The pupils then made out their own working plan, and began to figure the amount of material needed.

Needless to say, all the gifts were ready for Christmas, although some slow workers used additional time at noon and in activity period to complete their gifts. A few pupils brought some gifts

they had begun to make at home and finished them at school.

Growth which occurred—the teacher's view. The pupils showed progress in ability to plan, organize, and carry through their projects. Most of the articles were well made and all were acceptable. New skills were learned, and the pupils gained ideas from each other's work so that after the holidays the making of lamp shades and book covers and the weaving continued. Under the stimulation of making the stuffed animals and infant clothes machine stitching improved. The pride and joy the boys and girls had from giving gifts made by themselves was a source of satisfaction to the teachers who had helped them.

RENOVATION OF CLOTHES EXTENDS THE BUDGET

If the school recognizes the value of personal tidiness, the child may begin to develop habits of neatness even in the primary years. Interest in keeping their clothes intact may be aroused by having the pupils assemble a sewing box for the homeroom at the beginning of each year. The box might contain scissors, thread of different weights and colors, needles and thimbles of different sizes, odd buttons and fasteners, a darning ball, and an emery bag. The box should be accessible to every child and encouragement given for its use. When more extensive repairs are needed, the pupils might receive help in the homemaking room during an activity period or intermission.

The habit of obtaining emergency help in such things as stain removal and mending frequently paves the way to larger renovation projects among the upper elementary groups. Children will be amenable to making over garments if they have previously made pretty things which satisfied their love of color and desire for possession.

Certain groups require more definite motivation than their need for such help. Teachers have made the making-over of clothes popular by wearing to school an attractive dress which the pupils know has been remodeled. Again, exhibits of dresses, skirts, jackets, or smaller articles of dress which have

been made of used materials have encouraged pupils to renovate garments.

Mothers can give valuable assistance in make-over projects; for example, a mother who has become skilled in dyeing and renovating clothes at home might direct pupils' explorations of this at school. It is an inexpensive kind of project and one which offers endless creative possibilities.

Renovation can be combined with a study of a particular fabric, and the remodeling can be done with the use of a commercial pattern which requires a minimum amount of sewing. Precautions like this save time and prevent discouragement. Many of the processes learned on make-overs are the same as would be used in making new articles, and ingenuity is encouraged through the cleaning, dyeing, and turning of material. Judgment is developed through deciding if material is worth using again, for only when the garment is improved in appearance and wearing possibilities is it an addition to the wardrobe and a budget extender.

NEW CLOTHES ARE MADE

Children of twelve and thirteen begin to be more conscious of details in what they wear, and want many new clothes. What "the others" are wearing often arouses in them burning desires for a certain kind of blouse, skirt, sweater, or accessory. If the child is permitted to make a few clothes to wear she may not only learn sewing skills but also gain tolerance of the limitations of the family purse and her mother's generosity.

The teacher is wise who capitalizes on the fashion trends in her community, being content to teach foundation principles through what may seem to be an educational frill. For example, a girl learns perseverance as well as manual coordination, accuracy, and judgment of line by knitting a sweater. Many a sweater begun in a rush of enthusiasm will be completed instead of cast aside if encouragement is given at the crucial moment. Knitting clubs begun at school may be continued in after-school hours and may also lead to interest in sewing.

Interest in clothing is encouraged if pupils are permitted to make what they need or want. The skillful teacher is able to have the pupils' desires coincide with their needs and their parents' wishes.

The pupil herself selects the garment she will make with the help of illustrative material from current magazines, of sample clothes, and of patterns which are a part of the school supplies. The pupil's teacher and her mother help her to choose one which she needs most urgently, her wardrobe for the season and allowance influencing the decision. When a tentative selection of articles has been made, the teacher probably will let the pupils take a preliminary test which shows them their knowledge of construction and sewing processes. The homemaking teacher, who by this period is probably directing clothing study, will have available working-time charts for each kind of article so that each pupil may estimate the time needed to make the article she has chosen.

When garments to be made are selected in this way, the pupils' choices usually narrow to three or four kinds of articles, and individuality appears in the patterns and materials used. For example, there will be several blouses, jumpers, skirts, or collar and cuff sets being made in one class. The teacher finds this feasible and groups pupils making like things, as she uses many teaching aids and instructs largely by group demonstrations.

The pupil studies her pattern and selects a material suitable for the garment and to her ability as shown by previous workmanship and the preliminary test. She estimates the quantity of material needed and purchases it herself. A textile-buying and arithmetic experience of value is lost, as is personal interest, if a girl's mother buys yardage for a garment without letting the pupil plan for and authorize the purchase.

Cutting, sewing, and fitting processes are learned directly on the garment itself. Pupils fit each other. Trying on a garment repeatedly has several values. It not only teaches the pupil to fit a garment, but also emphasizes correct posture

and the suitability of the line and style of the garment for her.

A pupil's standards of sewing are improved as she evaluates her own work by the models at hand and by goals the group has set up. For example, certain seams and finishes are common to all the garments and are standard, but each group will determine steps in the construction of their garments and what kinds of seams and finishes are best for them. Instructions for sewing which accompany patterns are helpful, but are incomplete for children or beginners.

The making of a garment shows again that evaluation of experience is a continuous process as each step is built upon a previous one according to the partially completed design. Devices for evaluating the excellence of sewing processes are available.³ The ones which mean the most to the pupils, however, are those which they help make because, in setting up items to be evaluated, they recognize what is or has been important or difficult for them. Through self-evaluation the pupils' knowledge is challenged and their understanding is revealed. If a preliminary test has been used, a companion follow-up test will help to show each pupil what improvement she has made during the period.

By making articles such as a blouse, a simple dress, or a skirt, a girl learns to look at a problem in its entirety and break it into its component parts. She analyzes each step in the planning and construction and learns to master details. She learns to interpret the printed word—for many reference books and commercial patterns present definite instructions for making clothes—and to express her understanding in tangible form. By judging the effect of the new garment as it is worn with her other clothes, the pupil gains some appreciation of the effect of its color and line, and of the whole ensemble in relation to her figure and personality.

A more rounded knowledge of construction and sewing is

³ Marcia L. Winn, "An Analytic Sewing Scale for Machine Sewing," *Practical Home Economics*, 12:7:256-257, September, 1934.

gained when they are studied in correlation with other aspects of dress, i.e., how to shop for, select, buy, and alter ready-mades, and what is good taste in clothes.

GOOD TASTE IN DRESS IS LEARNED

Concepts of harmony in color, texture, and design can be enjoyed by the preschool child, and expanded as he learns and matures. Play in the preschool and kindergarten, in which paints, crayons, colored beads, and cloth of many colors and textures are used as mediums, serves as a foundation for learning artistic relationships. Finger painting, drawing, making mats woven from heavy colored yarns and cottons, and many other activities help the children appreciate and think in color.

One kindergarten teacher who had a deep appreciation of the place of art in daily life introduced a study of color and design to her group by relating it to their knowledge of clothing and their home interests. The children sought, from papers, groups of colors they liked to see together. They then cut out dresses for paper dolls from one color and harmonized hair bows of another color with them. They made ties of a plain color or of a striped design to fit on paper models of a figured shirt which their fathers might wear.⁴ A beginning such as this made in the early years might have many sequels later. For example, dolls might be dressed with real fabrics in the first or second school years. The dolls themselves might be made from raffia, papier-mâché, or cloth, and through the three-dimensional project the children might gain concepts of line and proportion as well as of color and design.

Nine-, ten-, and eleven-year-olds might study the combined effect of color in their suits, shirts, ties, and socks. Samples of shirting for blouses may be collected, the weave studied, and color fastness tested. Study of the production of fibers

⁴ Alma A. Buehrman, *Experiences in the Appreciation of Art in Dress* (developed in the Blow School Kindergarten, St. Louis, Mo., 1939).

and their manufacture into cloth is more real when actual materials are at hand to illustrate design, texture, and strength. Study of the effect of the cotton shirts or blouses the children are wearing with their trousers or skirts is, for them, an experience in clothing selection. Through practical demonstrations only will the pupils get the "feel" of the weight, texture, weave, and comparative wearing qualities of different fabrics.

THE COMPLETE COSTUME IS CONSIDERED

It is suitable for intermediate groups to begin a study of the complete costume with its accessories. One such study is reported as follows. All kinds of costume accessories were brought to school including scarfs, ties, handkerchiefs, purses, caps, and coat ornaments. They were examined for ideas, design, color, and methods of construction. The pupils visited a department store and a store of limited prices to see accessories. They then designed and made accessories, working out the color scheme to harmonize with the costume with which each was to be worn. The finished products were displayed at a Parent-Teacher Association meeting when the costumes were worn. Such activities are practical in the education of boys as well as of girls.⁵ In rural districts the principles learned through such experiences might be gained by making ornaments from natural products as seeds, shells, bark, or berries.

In districts where the quality and price of clothing and cleaning and mending of clothes are constant problems because of low income, the artistic aspects of dress may be handled differently. They are, however, just as essential as in more favored groups, if not more so. For example, a faded dress may be dyed and new accessories may be made to change its appearance. Several packages of dye and some muslin may be evolved into attractive scarfs. Linoleum block designs made in art study may be used on the ends of scarfs or for decorating canvas or oilcloth purses or bags.

⁵ Ruth Wood Gavian, *Education for Economic Competence*, p. 86.

The needs of each child and of each group of children determine the approach and the kind of projects through which the harmonious ensemble is sought.

THE CLASS GOES SHOPPING

Pupils in the upper elementary years combine the study of art in dress with that of buying clothes. They profit by studying in the store itself as there they see a profusion of goods from which to choose, and experience the shopping relationship with salespeople. Trips to stores should be made with foresight, they should be planned in advance, and what constitutes consideration of the merchant and his salespeople should be kept in mind.

Field trips of any kind are an essential part of the child's learning and as such are carefully planned and carried out. The teacher usually makes preliminary contacts and arrangements when the class sees the desirability of a trip. The date, time of day, the numbers that can be accommodated at one time, and other details are planned with the manager in charge of the place to be visited. It is well to give him a written statement of the purpose of the visit and what the class hopes to learn from it. Permission to make the trip is also obtained from the principal of the school and each child's parents.

Definite things to look for and to be learned are set up by the pupils before they go on the well-planned trip. Each child might take responsibility for reporting back to the class findings on one or more specific questions. For example, on the trip to the clothing store a salesman might show complete wardrobe ensembles which are fashionable, serviceable, and harmonious. If this is not possible in the one department, a more intensive study might be made of certain articles such as shirts, ties, and sweaters (or sweaters, skirts, and blouses for girls). Questions such as follow and some answers sought show how a problem may be previewed by the group and smaller questions considered by individual children.

*Questions Asked by Individuals**Answers Shared with Others*

I. When buying a coat, how can a person know

1. The kind to buy?

The kind of coat one buys is determined by the use to be given it, the other coats one has, and the seasons of wear one expects to get from it.

2. The quality of material to expect and what to pay for it?

Material should be as good as one can afford. It is usually economical to put a proportionately large percentage of the clothing allowance in outer clothes as they get hard wear. The material the coat is made of and its quality should be shown on a label in the coat.

3. The color and style of coat it is best to buy?

Both the color and style should harmonize with the clothes one wears with it. In general, the coat will be more serviceable if it is darker than the clothes worn with it.

4. The general quality of its construction?

The seams and joinings should be amply large, the fronts well lapped over, and hems generous in depth.⁶

II. When one is buying footwear, how does one know

1. A well-fitting sock or stocking?

Full-fashioned socks or stockings fit more snugly and without wrinkles. They may cost more than others, but generally give more satisfaction.

⁶ Laura Dexter, Margaret Justin, and Lucille Rust, *Our Clothing*, pp. 129-131.

2. How to know when socks or stockings are long enough? A well-fitting sock or stocking fits without stretching when new. Socks should extend 4"-6" above the shoe; stockings to 6" above the knee.
3. The amount to pay for hosiery? The amount to pay for each pair of hosiery and for a year's supply should be in proportion to other items in the wardrobe. One's clothing budget gives the answer.
4. The number of socks or stockings to keep on hand? The number needed depends on the use of sturdy ones for work and play, the care with which new ones are fitted, the length of time between wearing and washing them, and on the variety of colors one has in shirts, blouses, suits, or skirts.⁷

As plans are made for the excursion to the store, the pupils consider how to approach a salesperson, and what questions to ask him. Other points of courtesy in shopping and the obligation of the buyer in the selection, touching, purchase, and exchange of goods may enter the discussion.

Facts which are learned on the field trip are real to the children when told to them by one who actually sells the articles. Better conclusions are drawn from the trip when what each has seen and talked about is shared with the class in a general discussion following it. Details of what each pupil has learned may be discovered in this way, and by an objective test given later, if that seems desirable. If a written report is somewhat removed from the excursion and made part of a general review, perspective often produces better judgments, and the pleasurable values of the experience are not overshadowed by concern about the written report.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 120-123.

THE STORE COMES TO THE CLASSROOM

School situations do not always permit field trips such as have been described. Studies similar to the above illustration may be made, however, in the classroom. The motivation for a study of how to buy wisely might arise from group discussions of weekly buying in the community center, from an art experience, from concern about how to keep clean and well groomed, or from considering how to get a new dress or suit. Each pupil might study his own problem. He might begin by analyzing the clothes he needs for rough work, for church, for school, and for play or special types of recreation. The number of changes needed might be the next step. The question of how to make the best selection of clothes from the local stores or from catalogues leads to the examination of the actual merchandise.

A series of exhibits from an enterprising local store may be borrowed and displayed in the classroom. To be of the best educational value, discussion of the qualities of each kind of garment is based upon points the group has previously decided are important, possibly weighted numerically as to their relative importance.

The exhibit might be preceded, or followed, by a further experience. The pupils might wear to school costumes which they consider suitable for one of their customary activities, each child explaining to the group why he wears this costume for the particular activity. Deductions as to the suitability of the clothes can then be drawn according to qualities desired. Authorities on dress—represented in the classroom by reference books, magazines, and the teacher's illustrations—provide the details upon which the pupils base their standards for judging the suitability of the exhibited clothes.

The current fads and fashions may be used as a point of departure in teaching, and, if tactfully handled, may bring socially desirable conclusions. It may be best to ignore them unless they are recognized for their intrinsic values or as a passing thing. For example: dressing for efficiency on one's job is approved although good appearance may be sacrificed; and clothes fads adopted by college students influence the style

preferences of school children. Elementary school pupils are realists, and their sense of humor helps them to strike a good balance in judgment of suitability in dress. Their teachers are wise to serve in the capacity of guide in discussion rather than as judges in the conclusions attained.

TYPICAL UNDERSTANDINGS CHILDREN MAY ACCEPT THROUGH ROUNDED EXPERIENCES WITH DRESS

Social aspects of dress are important.

When one gets up in the morning it is fun to wash and dress quickly so that one can eat breakfast with daddy.

It is less trouble to dress so that one is ready to leave for school on time.

The well-groomed person is clean. This means frequent bathing, and washing of hands—especially before eating.

Healthy teeth and gums are kept so by frequent and regular brushing, by regular trips to the dentist, and by an adequate and balanced diet.

Nails cleaned and smoothed daily have a natural appearance and are attractive.

Hair that is clean, well brushed, and neatly arranged makes an attractive frame for the face.

Neat, clean, and becoming clothes indicate self-respect and a respect for others.

A person is at ease among people when he dresses more or less as they do.

The appearance of a person and of his clothes shows his personality and individual taste in dress.

It is a pleasure to wear clothes that are attractively designed and made, and in style.

Managing one's clothes is fun.

Frequent change of underwear, according to the bathing and laundry schedule of the home, adds to one's charm because cleanliness is the foundation of beauty and good grooming.

Clothes hold their shape and wear longer if placed on hangers when removed.

Clothes should be kept well aired and brushed.

Loose buttons and hooks are quickly replaced if mending tools are near at hand.

The knowledge of what fabric or fabrics are in a garment helps one to decide whether to have it washed or dry-cleaned.

The habit of keeping one's clothes in a place free from dust makes them look better and wear longer, by saving cleaning.

Shoes keep their shape better and wear longer if they are kept polished and on shoe forms.

Stockings wear longer if they are washed and mended immediately after wearing.

A knowledge of what to look for in the desired garment helps one to buy more wisely.

A record of clothes bought and how they have worn is a reliable guide to one's buying, and is little trouble if made a part of one's annual diary.

A review of one's entire wardrobe, made before going shopping, helps one decide what clothes need to be bought, and which ones may be repaired.

The ability to sew is useful.

Sewing is a way of getting things one wants, including clothes.

It is fun to sew, but in order to sew quickly and well, right tools must be used.

When making a garment, patterns should be fitted to the person, and, if necessary, altered before using.

The ability to recognize a well-fitting garment, and knowing how to correct poorly fitting ones helps one to have becoming ready-made clothes.

A study of dress helps a person to know what clothes are most becoming to him and how to buy what he needs most.

The ability to make clothes helps a person to dress better on less money.

Costume study is part of everyday living.

People of all nations dress for convenience in daily living, and also have expressed their ideas of beauty and their personality through their dress.

The proportions of different parts of the human figure are better understood after making or dressing dolls.

Correctly fitted clothes permit freedom of action to all parts of the body.

Correctly fitted stockings and shoes relax the body, give grace and swing to the walk, and help give good posture.

Clothes which are becoming are suited to the person wearing them.

Clothes for work and sports are built strong and sturdy.

Handkerchiefs, scarfs, belts, and ties and socks, although called accessories, serve to make interesting changes in suits and dresses.

If a person enjoys bright colors, a good plan for him is to have several matched sets of socks, ties, shirts, and so forth, instead of many articles of different colors.

A mirror study of his figure and posture helps to show a person how to accent his good points and play down less desirable features in his figure.

It may cost one less rather than more to dress harmoniously, if one sees an outfit as a picture and plans all details of it.

It is fun to shop with a plan for buying.

Intelligent selection and care of clothes go hand in hand.

An hour or two spent after school one day a week, or on Saturday, in putting her clothes in tip-top wearing condition assures a girl that her clothes are ready for the next week.

The girl who prides herself on always being well groomed can, as a part of her weekly schedule, launder her undies and hosiery and press her blouses, skirts, collars, and so forth.

Time, energy, and money are saved by using the right kind of equipment, soaps, stain removers, and temperatures in washing and ironing different fabrics and articles.

Stains should be removed and repairs made before household articles and clothing are laundered.

A stitch in time on a snagged stocking is most important and not time consuming.

Silk and woolen clothes, unless definitely specified as washable, wear longer if they are dry cleaned. Cottons and linens are cleaner if washed.

The garment that is cheapest is not always the best buy, as many fabrics do not clean well.

A knowledge of fabrics and their fibers helps one to select, wear, and care for his clothes with intelligence.

The clothes we wear are made of cotton, linen, silk, wool, rayon, and several new synthetic materials.

The label on new clothes and materials should identify their composition, and the amount of each fiber, if there is a combination of them.

Woven or knitted fabrics of cotton, rayon or silk are usually used for underclothes because they absorb perspiration, are easily laundered and colorfast.

Gingham and other cotton goods are used in many school clothes because they are washable, keep their shape, and wear well.

Neither the most expensive nor the cheapest but a good material is likely to give the best service for the money invested.

Ties, gloves, and scarfs of washable material are likely to give the school boy or girl the best wear.

Loosely woven or knitted materials make comfortable clothes because the spaces between the threads catch and hold the air, keeping one cooler in warm weather and warmer in cold weather.

STORIES AND OTHER BOOKS ON DRESS AND HANDICRAFTS

Books for the Six- to Eight-Year-Olds

- AANRUD, HANS (translated from the Norwegian by LAURA E. POULSSON), *Lisbeth Long Frock*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. A classic. It tells of a quaintly garbed little Norwegian girl's life and a heroic family's struggle to emphasize the important things in life.
- BESKOW, ELSA, *Pelle's New Suit*. New York: Harper, 1929. Although this is a picture book suitable for the very young child, it traces the evolution of Pelle's new suit from the growing of the yarn to the completed article.
- FIELD, RACHEL, *Polly Patchwork*. New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1936. Polly finds that it is not the dress you wear that counts so much as how you wear it.
- HUNT, MABEL LEIGH, *Little Grey Gown*. New York: Stokes, 1939. This is the story of a little Quaker girl, her pet lamb, and how its wool came to clothe her instead of the lamb.
- , *Benjie's Hat*. New York: Stokes, 1938. Eight-year-old Benjie and his thrifty Quaker grandmother with whom he lives have different ideas about hats for little boys, and things happen to one hat after another.

LINDMAN, MAJ JAN, *Flicka, Ricka, Dicka, and the New Dotted Dresses*. New York: A. Whitman, 1939. Three little Swedish girls try to heed their mother's counsel to keep their dresses clean, but they get too busy helping a little old woman to think about clothes.

MURRAY, GRETCHEN C., *Shoes for Sandy*. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1936. When the old shoe pinches, Sandy and mother go to the shoe store and buy a fine pair of new shoes.

Books for the Nine- to Eleven-Year-Olds

FIELD, RACHEL, *Hitty—Her First Hundred Years*. New York: Macmillan, 1931. The adventures of Hitty, the little wooden doll in the Maine family of one hundred years ago, give a graphic picture of family life in those days.

HALL, RUTH MASON, and ALBERT NEELY HALL, *Home Handicraft for Girls*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1941. Directions, working drawings, and photographs of interesting things to do and make. Its scope is wide, extending from the garden to house accessories and hints for holiday functions.

JORDON, N. R., *Homemade Dolls in Foreign Dress*. New York: Harcourt, 1941. Tells how to make and dress dolls in the costumes of fifteen countries. Directions are given also for making little houses and domestic animals.

———, *American Costume Dolls*. New York: Harcourt, 1941. Gives clear, concise directions for making and dressing American dolls in eleven periods of American history. Materials suggested are easily obtainable and inexpensive.

KARASZ, MARISKA, *The Good Housekeeping See and Sew*. New York: Stokes, 1943. A picture sewing book which gives the first steps in sewing by clear and simple text and illustrations.

PARKHILL, MARTHA, and DOROTHY SPAETH, *It's Fun to Make Things*. New York: A. S. Barnes, 1941. This book gives help for making up-to-date kinds of things.

Books for the Eleven- to Thirteen-Year-Olds

GILES, NEEL, *Susan, Be Smooth!* Boston: Hall, Cushman & Flint, 1940. Susan is given wise counsel about grooming and dress in a breezy way which is bound to make any preadolescent giggle and think.

RYAN, MILDRED GRAVES, *Junior Fashions*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1944. This textbook is addressed to adolescent girls who are beginning to be interested in personal appearance and sewing.

RECOMMENDED READINGS

- BAXTER, LAURA, and ALPHA LATZKE, *Modern Clothing*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1938. 525pp.
 EVANS, MARY, and ELLEN B. MCGOWAN, *A Guide to Textiles*. New York: John Wiley, 1939. 232pp.
 VERMONT UNIVERSITY, SLOAN FOUNDATION EXPERIMENT. Maurice Morrill, director. *Suggestions for Presenting Clothing Information to Vermont School Children*. Bulletin: January 15, 1944.

TEACHING AIDS

- BAITY, ELIZABETH, *Man Is a Weaver*. New York: Viking Press, 1942. \$2.50.
 CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, BOARD OF EDUCATION. Bureau of Curriculum, Home Mechanics Laboratory. *Selection and Care of Clothing*. 50¢. Unit I, *The Clothes We Wear*; Unit II, *Learning to Sew*; Unit III, *Care and Repair of Clothing*; Unit IV, *Learning How Cloth Is Made*; Unit V, *How to Know Fibers from Which Cloth Is Made*.
 DENNY, GRACE G., *Fabrics*, rev. ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1942. 202pp. \$2.50.
 FRAZER, GRACE L., *Doll Making at Home*. New York: Studio Publications, 1940. 64pp. \$1.00.
 HORNER, ISABEL, *Teach Yourself Fashion Designing and Dressmaking*. New York: Fortune's, 1940. 224pp. \$1.00.
 PICKENS, MARY BROOKS, *Mending Made Easy*. New York: Harper, 1943. 181pp. \$3.00.
 RATHBONE, LUCY, and ELIZABETH TARPLEY, *Fabrics and Dress*, rev. ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1943. 388pp. \$1.80.

Bulletins

- AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION, BUREAU OF HUMAN NUTRITION AND HOME ECONOMICS, *A.B.C.'s of Mending*. Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1943. 23pp. 10¢.
 VERMONT UNIVERSITY, SLOAN PROJECT IN APPLIED ECONOMICS, *Bob and Bet Get New Shoes*, 19pp.; *Shoes Go to School*, 17pp.; *We Care for Our Clothes*, 27pp. Burlington, 1942.

Charts

- UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, BUREAU OF HOME ECONOMICS, *Clothing Selection Charts*. Nine sets of charts at 40¢ a set. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office.

X. *Being an Intelligent Consumer*

CONSUMER RELATIONSHIPS ARE FORMED EARLY

The attention and energy of very young children are engaged in learning how to use foods, clothing, and the many services and goods adults give them. Soon children begin to make choices among these commodities and choice is based on personal preference. When school age approaches they have acquired definite habits of expectancy in services and goods. It has been said that the consumer problems of the young school child are usually limited to spending the allowance or the money delegated by the family to buy school supplies, recreation, clothing, and food.¹ In the elementary years children may learn also to be thoughtful in their use and care of their possessions, to understand their responsibilities as consumers of services in their family and school groups, and to meet their own and their immediate family's problems which are comprehensible to them. As they study these they should gain much factual knowledge about goods, services, and economic relationships, and some perspective on similar ones of local, national, and international scope.

EXPERIENCES OCCUR IN DAILY SITUATIONS

Economic aspects have been shown in relation to certain of pupils' health, food, clothing, recreation, and other daily experiences in preceding chapters. Many other kinds of situations offer opportunity to teach pupils how to use and save money, goods, services, time, and labor, and to turn their thought toward devising ways and means of contributing to their own or their families' social or economic advantage. Children's contributions during the war were testimony to their willingness and creative ability to contribute to the com-

¹ James E. Mendenhall and Henry Harap, *Consumer Education*, p. 112.

mon cause. A cross section of their daily living shows different kinds of situations and attendant problems: Children receive money and have the task of managing it as they spend it for what is important to them, i.e., books and school supplies, toys, and gadgets which are displayed to attract their attention. They want many things which they see other children have, and the money they see others spend also tends to whet their desire for money or possessions. Children, especially those who live in cities, see the person-to-person exchange of money for goods and services. To a great extent in city and to some degree in most school districts, children show an increasing urge to earn or to have their own spending money. Teachers have reported problems arising in school which are traceable to children's lack of knowledge of money values, and to pressures due to money or the lack of it.

Children are subjected to advertising over the radio even before they can read, and soon are attracted by gaily printed ads. They buy for their families and for themselves. Their errands take them to the grocery, the fruit market, the drug-store, the clothing store, and the five and ten. Displays of goods there are extensive and choices are difficult. Therefore children need opportunity to study marketing and to consider the satisfactions that come from thoughtful buying, and the value of deferred spending. These goals involve deliberation and planning before spending, and analysis of values after buying.

Children pay bills, return goods to stores, go to the bank, and meet many other kinds of situations which involve person-to-person relationships in the business world. Their desire to be recognized by adults including persons outside the family, and to know about the affairs of the world makes them ready to consider economic problems.

Experiences which each child has in managing money, time, and energy are unique to him, and are important in his social maturing and character development. It is important that he get healthy impressions at an early age about the use and care of his possessions, about money, spending, and sav-

ing, and, as he becomes older, about the use of time, energy, goods, and services. His habits of thought and action in these years form the foundation of his adult behavior in these matters.

FAMILY ATTITUDES AND PRACTICES LAY FOUNDATIONS

The value and ways of teaching the young child to care for his toys and clothes have been discussed.

Parents' ideas of the relation of money and material things to intellectual and spiritual values in living color children's attitudes toward them. The ability to manage one's material goods need not overshadow higher values, but may add much happiness to family life, provided each one in the family is helped to become aware of and understand the family relationships which exist at the time. Several situations may illustrate this: A young child wants to know why his daddy works, and learns that he does so to earn money to buy food, coal, clothes, an automobile, and other things to add to the family's comfort. The older child in the home learns to turn off the electric light when he leaves the room *because* it reduces the electric bill, thus leaving more funds for new clothes or books, for Christmas, or for a holiday which is coming soon. Mother has been too tired lately, so each member of the family does a few extra things to lighten her load. Parents are wise who try to keep the machinery of the household submerged to social values even while operating on schedule because they believe that good management of time and effort conserves human energy. One mother whose children helped get the evening meal rotated the responsibility for keeping the conversation at dinner interesting. Each child and parent took week about in bringing to the table each evening one or two current events, a story, or an anecdote. In this way dinner became pleasurable, table manners were improved because tensions were eased, and social poise was developed.

Many parents believe that children should have firsthand

experiences with money through having an allowance and learning to manage it. If a child has his allowance and participates in family conferences when the family expenditures are planned, he learns that this is a way to get the *wants* as well as the *musts*. One eight-year-old girl said: "I get fifteen cents a week now and I budget it; part is for church, part for my bank, and I can spend the rest." Her parents were helping her to manage her money, but also had the obligation to help her to see money saved as a means to gaining some higher purpose. The older child whose allowance covers more items than these, and who has the responsibility for its management, learns something of how to get value for his money and has the added pleasure of stretching his money and of saving for specific and larger goals. If he goes beyond his allowance, he learns that he must go without something or impose upon others' funds or generosity.

As the child's ability to manage his money grows, his allowance may be increased, or he may earn. Whether or not children are paid for helping at home is a matter to be decided upon by each family. In family discussion certain routine tasks might be agreed upon as each one's responsibility, with certain special or more difficult ones decided upon as meriting remuneration. A plan of rotation of tasks might be worked out by both parents and children. Such family discussions, wisely handled, do much to keep harmony about money matters. Even where there is disagreement discussion *clears the air* by bringing people's views into the open, with learning and understanding a possible result.

The practice of giving a child an allowance or permitting him to work does not necessarily mean that his independence of the family will be overstressed, as other home interests and relationships offset this and should help to increase the family unity. For example, pooling a part of the monthly, weekly, or annual savings so that all can buy a radio or other things that all may enjoy provides a common bond. Or, when community or national emergencies challenge local or family in-

terest, the boy (or girl) is usually gratified if he is able to contribute from his own savings or by his work.

CONSUMER EDUCATION EXPERIENCES OCCUR AT SCHOOL

There are many potential experiences connected with daily school life in which pupils may learn how to use and conserve what they have, how to choose in the markets, and how to know kinds and qualities of consumer goods, the purposes, kinds, and qualities of advertising, and something of the consumer problems families have, including the use of their money. Effective experiences make it possible for pupils to "discover" the principles upon which to act.

PUPILS LEARN TO USE AND CONSERVE

The children practice conservation as well as use of their clothing when they learn, in the preschool and primary years, to hang up their hats, coats, and umbrellas, and to place their overshoes below them in the clothespress. Certain desirable habits might result from pupils' learning to care for their school supplies and equipment because they appreciate their value.

If there is a notable amount of tardiness in the mornings, each child might work out a plan of his early morning routines, with an estimated time schedule for each activity, and try to follow it. Upper elementary pupils have made such an analysis of their entire day, and satisfaction resulted from working out a better balance between their work and leisure time activities.

Boys and girls help in many conserving activities of the home such as canning and storing for winter use and making household articles and clothes. At school those in the upper elementary years respond to the advantages of a home mechanics or general shop where they may learn to make and make over articles of furniture, to refinish floors and woodwork, and to do other such things. They also learn to repair

household articles such as window shades, door and window screens, faucets, locks and hinges, and clogged drains, and to make electric appliances safe.

If the homeroom teacher and the teachers of social studies, home living, science, and art see that reading and discussion parallel and enlarge the learning of such projects as these, interest will be likely to expand into many avenues. For example, there might result a study of the laws which give safeguards in providing standards concerning electric wiring, or insist on other fire prevention.

Participation in local or national projects such as food conservation may be related to each one's personal obligations, such as eating all of the food one buys in the lunch room or brings from home in one's lunch, or being patient at home when foods one likes are scarce. Upper elementary pupils might consider what constitutes and causes scarcity of commodities.

The pupil manages his allowance. School study of how to manage one's allowance provides a good support of parents' teaching.

If the children in a given group have spending money and need guidance in saving part of it, a worthwhile school experience might be to study the advantages of a savings account, the methods of opening one, and the rules of the local banks regarding accounts for children. An approach to the study may be made from children's extravagant spending, from their anxieties about handling family funds, or from any evidence of their readiness for the experience. Arithmetic problems frequently lead to a consideration of banking methods and a study of deposit slips and check cashing or other ways of removing money.

Unless the child has an allowance or makes his own or his family's purchases, school consideration of methodical planning and spending may be postponed until he has money to spend. Class discussion of the value of keeping a record of actual purchases may result, however, from an actual buying trip on a school project or a child's casual remark about his

spending practices. If interest is great enough for general discussion, each child might carry a trial record of his expenditures for one week. A review of these records usually leads to revision of the plan for spending, and another trial of it.

Consideration of how to make one's money go farther may lead to planning how to cut down on amusements which require money, such as going to the movies several times a week or patronizing the corner store slot-machine games. (Tossing pennies 50 to 100 times in an arithmetic class will show the group the likelihood of winning on chances, and may help discourage slot-machine games.) Substitutes for such amusements, to be acceptable, must be interesting to the group and planned by them. A playroom or place to gather after school hours makes a good beginning, especially if it is provided with a musical instrument or some games. Pupils will bring their hobbies to such a place and think of many things to do.

If a child or a class group becomes interested enough in planning the use of money, the value of planning family expenditures may be considered in terms of the rent, clothing, housing, and other items of the family budget. Lower incomes, actual incomes known to prevail in the community and habitual buying practices there should form the basis of problems considered. The financial status of the particular group of children making the study needs to be recognized, as has been mentioned in the sections on foods, housing, and clothing. The over-all study might be by way of a summary or as an introduction to problems in any of these areas.

Smaller, personal problems may be the better ones for many children to attack. For example, many children do not have enough money for school lunches and spend the little they have for candy or cake to supplement the sandwiches brought from home. The opportunity to earn some money or its equivalent by working at routine jobs in the school may provide the most needy pupils with adequate noon lunches. If the situation is general enough, cooperative school lunches may serve the double purpose of providing the lunches for all, and teaching the pupils the principles of cooperative buying

and selling. The child who earns his lunch, if given a weekly meal ticket like the others, is emotionally satisfied that he is helping at school, and his self-respect as well as his economic status is raised.

Experiences in managing school routines also give the child an idea of how to use or manage what has been called *the margin of time*, because the extra activities are done in out-of-class time. Frequently the child who does not need the food or extra money tends to be more aggressive in the service activities at school. This type of situation is well handled by the honor point system in most schools. The watchful teacher will try to interest the child whose low energy and lack of initiative is caused by poor nutrition or hygiene, thereby bringing about a very desirable correlation of experiences.

THE PUPILS LEARN TO BUY

Previous illustrations have shown the value of actual shopping in markets and stores in teaching pupils how to be good buyers. It has been estimated that between four and five billion dollars' worth of merchandise is returned annually in the United States, causing a great source of waste in distribution.² Return of goods bought increases overhead costs to the merchant who in turn must increase the price of his merchandise. Children as consumers can learn such facts as these as part of buying experiences. They can learn to choose what they buy according to carefully planned food, clothing, or household needs, guided by standards for articles like those they stated for a good toy. (See page 143.) Pupils need guidance, however, if they are to learn to use ethical shopping practices such as keeping what they buy when they shop, waiting their turn, being courteous to the merchant, paying bills promptly, and using credit fairly.

If time is taken to evaluate their purchases, pupils begin to understand the causes of differences in costs, the relationship

² Ada Kennedy and Cora Vaughn, *Consumer Economics*, p. 88.

between quality and the accompanying advertising, display methods, and the psychology of selling.

Choice making is self-guided. Practical guides for shopping are best when worked out by the pupils themselves, so that they may have standards which they understand to guide them as they go to buy. Younger pupils set up guides as they dramatize going to the store and conversing with the salespersons. Older ones can work out case situations about articles of clothing, foods, toys, and household goods of many kinds, and set up standards by which to choose them. The use of actual articles helps to visualize what is meant by choosing intelligently. For example: Buying processed and packaged cereals rather than raw cereals in bulk gives rise to a consideration of whether the money saved and the food value received from the unprocessed food balances the extra amount of fuel and time used in preparing it. By laboratory experiment, the children may learn that money, food value, fuel, time and energy, advertising pressure, and many other values interact in affecting choice making.

Marketing methods are studied. How to display and sell goods in the grocery or dry-goods store has long been a favorite project in the early primary classes. Through this, children learn to converse with each other, to make change, and to weigh and measure, and learn something of sales appeal through counter arrangement. In guided shopping trips to actual stores, upper primary pupils also learn the differences in selling practices, operation, and possible services to the customer in chain, cooperative, and individually owned stores. Groups of pupils make comparative shopping trips to each kind of store and learn of many standards, from sanitation to selling practices. Quite young children notice schemes and devices used by storekeepers in selling. They soon learn to judge when a sale is a real one and when it is a device to attract buyers. Upper elementary pupils can learn to interpret advertising and to evaluate guarantees of quality in goods and the information given on labels.

Store methods of displaying, pricing, and advertising goods

may help or hinder the buyer in his choices. The storekeeper may be willing to tell pupils what causes differences in the prices of articles which look alike to them. Sources of supply, transportation, quality of goods, and other details not easily detected by the consumer may be discovered by intelligent, tactful inquiry.

Older pupils might make trips to wholesale houses and produce yards to get some idea of the size and intricacy of the problem of providing foods for an entire community. The preservation of foods may also be studied if canneries and refrigeration lockers are within the range of a field trip.

Store methods of caring for foods may also be compared with those used in the school and at home. Standards for the improvement of pantry, refrigerator, or other storage facilities may develop from the field trips and from time spent in the home-living apartment where the pupils become familiar with storage arrangements.

The over-all problem of extending one's money and increasing one's ability to make good purchases in the markets and stores leads to other activities closely correlated with it. For example: The pupils may reveal how many times a day or week they visit the drugstore and how much money they spend there. Discussion of what they buy there might result in the group comparing the commercial items and their costs with similar homemade articles. Making tooth powder, face powder, cold cream, or even candy and comparing their quality and cost with the commercial products is of interest to upper grade pupils.

Consideration of the drug or cosmetic purchases might result in an analysis of items essential for the home medicine cabinet. The school nurse can help the pupils collect and evaluate an exhibit of desirable home remedies or items for the cabinet. A study of labels, consumer information, government protection through required standards, and selling methods might develop in natural sequence from the exhibited materials.

Pupils learn more about aids to buyers. Children's urge to collect may be used to motivate a study of safeguards available to the consumer. Labels and actual containers of many commercial products can be collected, and the actual differences in quality compared between widely advertised articles and those not so well known as to guarantees and quantities per stated prices. For example, labels from clothing, sheets, pillowcases, and other household articles can be collected and analyzed for the help they give the consumer.

The major goal to be sought through label studies is a knowledge of aids to buying which the government and private agencies give the consumer. Noteworthy among such agencies are the department stores in the larger cities. These realize that an informed buying public is likely to make more satisfactory purchases, and they use extensively exhibits, handbills, and other devices to inform their patrons of values in goods.

Upper elementary pupils like to keep a scrapbook of their collections of labels containing comparisons between descriptive advertising of commodities and other helps offered the consumer. Through guided study they may learn that good advertising is justified in that it keeps us up to date on goods available in the markets, and guides us in making our judgments. In comparing advertisements pupils come to see that good advertising states the actual values of and uses for the article or service, and its specific qualities.

Frequently pupils' parents have become interested in their study of consumer information and practices, and have lent the school display materials from their businesses for study. Stores also cooperate with the school in lending readymade clothing outfits, accessories, and other commodities for study.

A sixth grade develops standards for buying. A sixth grade unit of experience shows how one class developed standards for buying canned goods.

The pupils collected cans as they were emptied at home, kept the labels intact, and brought cans and labels to class where they

were sorted and mounted for study. A guide chart was then organized to show factors one should consider when buying canned goods. The chart included the following items: size of can, brand names, statements of quality given on labels, style of pack, amount of food in the can, color of product, sweetness of syrup, sizes of pieces, source of commodity, suggested uses, comparative costs, and lining of cans to prevent discoloration.

The cans that best illustrated the factors listed were selected and mounted on the labeled charts. These were used in class to make comparisons between brands, and later were placed in hall-way exhibit cases for pupils of the school to study. Later the exhibit was shown at the Parent-Teacher group meetings.³

Although such a unit of experience is valuable, what the pupils learn from it is increased many times if it is accompanied by day-by-day buying and if comparisons are made among different kinds of products which the pupils buy and use at home and in school. For example, the ability to figure costs, which is developed in the actual buying of foods for school lessons when the pupils are responsible for checking and weighing the foods after buying, is accompanied by other consumer-learning.

The examples given illustrate judgment values which may develop through the experiences discussed. If the teacher keeps in close touch with economic changes which occur constantly, and with the strains which are placed upon children and their families, new experiences will arise. For example, when taxes and living costs increase, a boy might become interested in figuring how he could lessen the financial strain in his family. The teacher knows that he is learning also how to cooperate and assume responsibility.

Magazine articles, bulletins for popular reading, line graphs from papers showing economic trends, advertisements, and books of fiction motivate interest and thinking.

³ Elizabeth S. McGovern, "A Unit of Study in Consumer Education," taught in Schools 13 and 20, Paterson, N. J. (mimeographed).



COURTESY EMMET BELKNAP SCHOOL, LOCKPORT, N. Y.

Eighth-Grade Girls Making Aprons for the Kindergarten



COURTESY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, PLATTSBURG, N. Y.

Eighth-Grade Girls Making Their Skirts and Dresses



COURTESY PORT WASHINGTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL,
PORT WASHINGTON, L. I.

Displaying the Newly Finished Dresses

TYPICAL UNDERSTANDINGS CHILDREN MAY ACCEPT THROUGH ROUNDED CONSUMER EXPERIENCES

Recreation need not be costly.

It is not necessary to have the same clothes and toys others have in order to have a good time.

A person can have a good time without spending money.

A movie guide helps one select good shows.

A person can see two good shows at a second-run movie house for the price of one at the theatres offering the newest shows.

Slot-machine games are chiefly a waste of money because the chance of winning is about one in ten trials.

Certain toys can be made more cheaply than they can be bought, and homemade toys often last longer because they are stronger.

The family is financed in several ways.

Both money earned and time and labor spent finance the family.

Doing home tasks regularly helps to finance the family.

One's allowance is money earned if a person cooperates in family plans, work, and play.

Shopping with a plan helps make money go farther.

If a child earns part or all of his allowance his parents and he should decide how it should be spent.

A bank account helps one to save for future needs.

Taking care of what one has is one kind of saving.

It makes one's school clothes wear longer to wear special clothes for playing.

Repairing home equipment and furnishings is economical if one has learned how to do so.

Good storage space in the home makes it possible for the family to preserve foods, and to lay in household supplies when prices are lowest.

The government asks us to be economical with food, and with

paper, wood, and any goods valuable in the reconstruction of homes, clothing, and so forth.

A record of what is bought helps one plan for future purchases.

A record of one's expenses kept for a week helps one to make a future spending plan.

A record of purchases with their costs shows whether too much is spent for some and not enough for other articles.

A record of income and expenses helps a person to divide his allowance proportionately between what he must buy and what he would like to have, including savings.

A spending plan is only a guide. It changes as emergencies arise and conditions change.

The shopper needs facts about consumer goods.

Buying in large quantities is economical when the goods will not spoil when stored and when the price is known to be reduced.

The price of the same article may differ in local stores because of difference in overhead costs, in the kinds of management of the stores, or in distributing methods.

Quality of goods is not always indicated by their price.

"Specials" in drug, department, or grocery stores are often used as "bait" for customers.

Prizes in packaged goods are actually paid for by the one who buys the package.

A person pays more for an article when he buys on the installment plan than when cash is paid.

Locally produced goods may be as good as more widely known and advertised products.

The production of a greater quantity of an article than is demanded tends to reduce its price.

"Fads" (popularity) in clothes may increase the price of a garment beyond its actual worth.

Trade marks and brands do not always mean that the product is of uniform quality, but they help the consumer to seek the qualities he wishes.

The government makes laws which protect us by regulating the quality of milk, butter, meat, and other perishable goods and by requiring that their quality be marked on them.

Knowledge of the quality of an article or its regular price helps the buyer to know when a "sale" is a real one.

The customer has responsibilities and is wise to follow certain practices when buying.

A person should know weights and measures and watch when his purchase is weighed or measured.

A good buyer reads the label before he buys.

The wise consumer pays cash when possible; the consumer pays for credit extended him when he runs a charge account with a store.

Children should take the time and attention of the salesperson only when they intend to buy or the merchant has agreed to give them information about buying and selling and about goods.

Buying by a written plan saves the time of the customer and the storekeeper.

A good rule to follow is to buy thoughtfully and base decisions on previous purchasing or upon guarantees of quality.

Keep hands off; handling goods on display reduces their value.

It saves time to shop when the stores are least crowded, and one gets better service then.

Goods bought should be kept unless they fail to measure up to standards or the representation of the merchant.

Advertisements may deceive or inform.

A good advertisement may attract attention and have dramatic appeal, but it gives only truthful information.

A good advertisement tells the quality, purpose, and actual value of the article or service.

Advertisements help to keep us up to date on what is available in the markets, and help us to make decisions in our buying.

FICTION WITH ECONOMIC THEMES

Books for the Six- to Eight-Year-Olds

CRABTREE, EUNICE K., LAVERNE C. WALKER, and DOROTHY CANFIELD, *Under the Roof*. New York: New York University, 1941. Under the general theme of eating square meals, going shopping, buying fresh fruits, etc., are discussed. There are three sections: "To Eat," "To Wear," "To Live In."

CREDLE, ELLIS, *Down, Down the Mountain*. New York: Thomas Nelson, 1934. Hetty and Hank decide to take to market the turnips they have grown in order to pay for badly needed new shoes. On the way they give them one by one to persons who are hungry. Fortune smiles on them when only one turnip is left.

———, *Little Jeems Henry*. New York: Thomas Nelson, 1936. A little Negro boy makes ingenious plans to earn his way to the circus. After many failures he finally gets to the circus.

HANNA, PAUL, GENEVIEVE ANDERSON, and WILLIAM S. GRAY, *Centerville* (in *Everyday Life Stories*). Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1938. The interdependence of living is shown in stories about the American small town, its surrounding farm country, and the city near it.

LINDMAN, MAJ J., *Snip, Snap, Snurr and the Red Shoes*. Chicago: A. Whitman, 1932. Not a new book but delightful in the family spirit it portrays as the boys strive to get the new shoes for mother.

Books for the Nine- to Eleven-Year-Olds

DE ANGELI, MARGUERITE, *Copper-Toed Boots*. New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1938. Shad had worked hard to earn money for new shoes, but tribulations which followed spending some of it for a trip to the circus almost caused the loss of the shoes.

ENRIGHT, ELIZABETH, *The Saturdays*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1941. The Melendy children had several dreary Saturdays. They decided to pool their funds so that each one could have a wonderful time one Saturday each month. Each one has an amazing time, but the sympathy each has for the other is heartening.

MEADER, STEPHEN, *Blueberry Mountain*. New York: Harcourt, 1941. Two boys encounter real adventure right at home when they try to operate a blueberry farm.

Books for the Eleven- to Thirteen-Year-Olds

ALLEE, MARJORIE HILL, *The House*. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1944. A group of college girls learn much about people and economic and social pressures while they make their home together in a cooperative house.

BIANCO, MARGERY, *Other People's Houses*. New York: Viking

Press, 1939. This is a sensible story of a young woman who made her way working in other people's homes. Girls 12-15 may get a glimpse into situations one meets when working with and adjusting to other people.

- FLOYD, OLIVER R., and LUCIEN B. KINNEY, *Using Dollars and Sense*. New York: Newson, 1942. Although this is a consumer-education reference for secondary schools, it is so simply written and easily read that it should be interesting to younger pupils.
- WEBER, LENORA MATTINGLY, *Meet the Malones*. New York: T. Y. Crowell, 1943. A courageous family of young folks adjust to living without a mother with resourcefulness and cooperative spirit.

RECOMMENDED READINGS

- DONHAM, AGNES, *Case Book in Family Budgeting*. Boston: The Boston Cooking School Magazine Company, 1937. 252pp.
- GORDON, LELAND JAMES, *Economics for Consumers*, 2nd ed. New York: American, 1944. 666pp.
- HARWOOD, E. C., and HELEN TOWLE, *How to Make Your Budget Balance*. Cambridge, Mass.: American Institute for Economic Research, 1940. 438pp.
- JACOBSON, DOROTHY HOUSTON, *Our Interests as Consumers*. New York: Harper, 1941. 328pp.
- KENNEDY, ADA, and CORA VAUGHN, *Consumer Economics*. Peoria, Ill.: Manual Arts Press, 1939. 360pp.
- MENDENHALL, J. E., and H. HARAP, *Consumer Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1943. 399pp.
- MONROE, DAY, HAZEL KYRK, and URSULA STONE, *Food Buying and Our Markets*. New York: M. Bartows, 1940. 438pp.
- TONNE, HERBERT A., *Consumer Education in the Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1941. 365pp.
- TRILLING, MABEL B., and FLORENCE WILLIAMS NICHOLAS, *You and Your Money*. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott, 1944. 371pp.
- WINGATE, ISABEL, KAREN R. GILLESPIE, and BETTY G. ADDISON, *Know Your Merchandise*, Harper, 1944. 715pp.

TEACHING AIDS

- BARRY, RUTH, *The Wise Consumer*. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, 1942. 47pp. 32¢.
- CRAIG, HAZEL T., *A Guide to Consumer Buying*. Boston: Little, Brown, 1943. 64pp. 44¢.
- WOODIN, J. C., *Home Mechanics for Girls*. Wichita, Kansas: McCormick-Mathers, 1938. 121pp. 80¢.

Bulletins

Consumer's Guide, Consumer's Counsel Division, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. (free).

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XI. Modifying the Program

AROUSING INTEREST LEADS TO PLANNING WAYS AND MEANS

The many possible ways to expand or enrich education for home and family living might appall less courageous teachers. American teachers, who wish to lead in educating for democratic living, will work to create interest in, and help to promote experiences which contribute to a successful family life education program.

Planning ways and means to make experiences constructive comes after interest is aroused. Effective and progressively growing school-community programs of this kind are founded on helping pupils and their families see their own greatest needs. Means of discovering these have been discussed in Chapter IV. Discovering ways to meet them which lead to successful accomplishment is the next step, with ultimate success dependent upon the sincerity and skill of the persons carrying out the program.

Probably the most important approach to modifying a joint school-community program is one that begins with the program as it is organized, pooling the efforts of all persons interested in enriching the present program, and making organizational and operational changes as the growth of the program necessitates them.

Certain things must be considered when modifying a given situation, especially when aspects of personal and family life are being considered: the point of view on these phases of education held by the administrators and teachers of the schools; the attitudes of parents and the general public toward innovations in the school program; the extent to which the school or schools in the community are operating democratically and base their programs on the social, spiritual, eco-

nomic, and intellectual needs of the people; and the physical environment and materials of instruction used in family life education, and means available for an expanded and enriched program.

EDUCATIONAL VIEWS OF SCHOOL LEADERS KEY THE PROGRAM

Views on the function of education held by members of the school board, administrators, supervisors, leading teachers, specialists in guidance and health, and lay persons interested in having the schools truly serve the best interests of the community and its children have an important influence on changes which are made in the school curriculum.

THE ADMINISTRATION SETS THE PACE

The Board of Education demonstrates its concept of the place of education for home and family life by the proportion of funds which it allocates for it, and by providing for research to study actual and potential needs of the people in the community, and for materials of research which show the teachers whether their teaching is effective. The Board also reveals its point of view on the entire educational program by the kind of administrative and teaching personnel it employs, the degree of responsibility and freedom it permits them, and the recognition it gives them for excellence in service.

THE DEMOCRATIC PROGRAM HAS MANY LEADERS ADMINISTRATORS' ASSISTANCE IS NEEDED

The principal and superintendent who see the advisability of a planned program of education for home and family life and promote the in- and out-of-school program are invaluable collaborators. The good administrator will lend moral as well as practical support if he is enthusiastic about the program, and he probably will be, if he has a definitely democratic attitude toward education, likes people, and has the ability to

delegate routine work to subordinates so that his time is made free to work with parents, students, and teachers. Executive leadership in this instance calls, not for a great expenditure of the executive's time, but for his enlistment of the cooperation of persons who have the ability to plan and organize creatively, and others who manage routines efficiently.

The superintendent of schools, or the principal, has facilities which can be employed to keep the local program in touch with state and national movements of similar character. This is especially valuable in a cooperative school-community venture. Both the superintendent and principal are strategic persons to guide inter-group purposing, planning, and action. Their sympathy is encouraging; its lack slows progress.

CLASSROOM TEACHERS TEACH HOME LIVING

It has been shown that the classroom teacher is qualified to induct pupils into home and family life attitudes and practices. Many elementary teachers will disclaim ability to do so, yet all teachers of young children have an understanding of how growth, development, and learning occur, and experience in living in a home and family. Most teachers today have had at least a minimum education in health, economics, nutrition, and family relations. It is to be hoped that elementary school teachers have superior personal and home-living standards which qualify them for leadership in these experiences, because from six years to the teen age children get definite attitudes toward home life, and their school experiences contribute positively or negatively to them.

SPECIALISTS CONTRIBUTE AS THEY ARE NEEDED

The cooperative participation of the classroom teachers, the children, and such specialists as the home-living teacher, the art, science, agriculture, English, and social studies teachers, and others in the day-by-day projects should result in more democratic living in the school and better integrated personalities for all.

The availability of teachers trained in home economics to take the lead in more specialized parts of the home-living experiences equalizes the responsibility for certain projects, prevents strains, and helps accent the home relationships in experiences which take place in the school (see pages 225-226). The home-living teacher is more efficient in leadership if she is a versatile person and has a flexible daily schedule. The latter makes her more available for assisting with many kinds of activities (see Appendix, Exhibit F). As a program gains momentum in a city or district, additional teachers may be needed on the home-living staff so that each large school or two smaller ones may have the leadership of a full-time teacher.

Supervisors in guidance, health, nutrition, home economics, and elementary education have a special contribution to make in guiding the research into local needs, in suggesting ways to meet these needs, in directing teacher research, and in discovering pertinent materials to motivate pupils' study.

LEADERSHIP IS MOVABLE

Leadership in a democratically conducted program will shift from administrator to teacher, from teacher to teacher, from teacher to pupil, and to parents or lay persons as the occasion demands the skills which any particular person has to give. In the school- and community-centered program, all need to be free to carry out their own plans and projects, even though these may be units of the over-all program. This does not bespeak lack of organization, but better interaction among workers. For example, pupils of the intermediate and upper elementary years are capable of planning and executing extensive projects, and primary pupils, as has been shown, can help make daily plans and follow through on correlated units of study.

Series of experiences similar to the following might have occurred in other elementary situations, and show what classroom teachers can teach through encouraging pupil initiative.

A FIFTH GRADE TAKES THE LEAD

During National Education week, a fifth grade in one of the elementary schools planned to serve a breakfast as an activity lesson in a unit of correlated work. Home economics is not taught in the elementary schools. The facilities for cooking and serving are in the P.T.A. kitchen, and not well adapted to class work.

One of the children wrote a letter to me [the home economics teacher], asking if I would give them recipes for cocoa and oatmeal to serve 35, and to tell them how much milk it would take to serve the cereal. I answered by return mail, and offered any further help which they might need. A second letter came from another child in the room to request a double boiler. It was signed "Oatmeal Chairman" after her name. She explained that it must be large enough to make oatmeal for eleven, as some of the children wanted cornflakes. She asked, "Why is oatmeal so good for us?" I answered this, and sent the double boiler asking her to be responsible for its return, telling her how it could be delivered and when I needed it returned. I also sent bulletins and other information on breakfasts and cereals, enough for the thirty-five children.

This same child assumed the responsibility for returning the double boiler and sending a nice "thank-you" note. There were several other letters of appreciation similar to hers which is given here:

Fairmount School
Jamestown, New York
December 1, 1943

Dear Miss Williams,

Our breakfast was successful. Your ideas were very helpful in the success of our breakfast. Thank you very much for your help.

Sincerely yours,

Joan Samuelson
for Room 15

In all of this correspondence I did not know who taught Room 15. The teacher did not make herself known, and it seemed to be a pupil-planned and -executed activity. All the correspondence was by mail, although there is a school delivery, and letters could

have been sent that way. I felt that it might be important to the class if I followed the same plan as they had started, and did not meet with them or the teacher during the project.

This activity gave me an illustration of one way the home economics teacher might reach grade children and function in the elementary schools. It presented an opportunity also to offer the services of the home economics department to the principals of all elementary schools at a Council meeting in February, using this as an example of a need that might exist.

Council members were interested, and said that they would suggest greater coordination of study to the teachers. At the present time I am working with elementary supervisors, to see where and how we might plan a cooperative unit for next year. It is the plan to correlate whatever we do with other studies, and I shall be on call if the grade room teacher desires any help which home economics can give. It is hoped that the children will again initiate an invitation for our assistance.¹

The above experiences were educational for the children because they sought definite worthwhile goals, planned how and where to get information, help, and materials for their project, carried it out with satisfaction, and recognized their obligation to others who had contributed to the experience. The report does not state whether the teachers had any evidence that the children's eating habits were improved by the experience.

More complete evaluation of what the pupils learned might have been possible had the teachers participating in the project known each other's educational goals, and what the pupils could be expected to learn from the coordinated experiences. However, plans for future collaboration were probably made possible through the spontaneity of the entire situation and the creative thought and action it involved. The assisting homemaking teacher was apparently successful in encouraging

¹ A report of a series of correlated experiences made May 1, 1944, by Miss Hazle Williams, Home Economics Teacher at Jamestown, N. Y., to the State Department of Education of the University of the State of New York, Bureau of Home Economics Education, as part of the State Education Curriculum Program.

homeroom leadership, in being content to see the promise of a wider home-living program in small beginnings, and in enlisting support of a more general program suggested by the advisory council. She had vision for expansion, but waited and planned for cooperative leadership—a wise policy.

Faculty-parent leadership begins the program. A joint faculty and parent study of what should comprise education for home-living for the young child might be made by a small group of those who believe in the program and might arouse interest which would spread to the entire school and then to the community. A professional yet unobtrusive study of families' and pupils' interests and needs helps teachers to guide their instruction more intelligently. One teacher's efforts show how she guided herself. She questioned pupils in grades five to eight in her school about their help at home, and their interest in foods, personal regimen, housekeeping, clothing, and family preferences and activities. She also questioned their mothers on what instruction they thought the school might give to meet best the needs of their daughters. Her discoveries led her to conclude, among other things, that pupils in these years would profit not only from help in material aspects of living, but also by reading about adventurous family living, by making gifts for family members, and by establishing more healthful daily routines. By consulting the mothers in a separate survey, she made them aware of the school's attention to pupils' personal and home-living needs.²

Individual families contribute to the program. Out-of-school persons welcome modification of the school program when they see its desirability. Parents must be informed that they are welcome at the school and can help in the program. They may learn about the objectives of such a program even before there is a recognized one. The purposes of certain activities may be explained through informal visits by teachers in the homes, by questionnaires such as Munyan used, and by

² Viola Munyan, "Home Making in an Elementary School," *Practical Home Economics*: 20:7:252-255, July-August, 1942.

pupils' enthusiastic reports of school projects while they are in the "doing" stage.

The teachers' efforts are reinforced also if parents, knowing the goals of the program, help their children to assume responsibility for their own daily routines at home, even in such simple ones as tidying up after games have been played or company has been entertained. A parent might work with a child who is consciously trying to make up dietary or other deficiencies he has discovered through school study. Pupils' homes can be used as a proving ground for experiences which cannot well be carried out at school. For example: A class might have a picnic in someone's back yard; or they could meet in the house to clean and arrange a living room during the housekeeping study; or they might visit a home to watch a baby at play or see it bathed when it is impossible for such arrangements to be carried out at school.

Among other things, parents can help present desirable topics for Parent-Teacher study meetings, get leaders for discussions, send out notices, and work with the teachers in the classrooms, on field trips, and in other projects.

Advisory councils are an asset. The Advisory Council has been mentioned. It is an invaluable aid to the organization and conducting of the program, and is composed usually of members of the teaching and supervisory staff, interested parents who are good organizers and leaders, and community representatives from interested welfare or educational groups. In a very small school, the group might be composed at first of parents and teachers. If there is a Parent-Teacher organization in the school, a special curriculum advisory council selected from its membership might act as a consulting body for the home-living program.

The Advisory Council might formulate general goals for the initial program in the particular school (leaving details to the teachers and their pupils), make tentative plans for the scope of it, and organize assisting committees to assume responsibility for planning and beginning certain phases of the program.

Monthly council meetings which are held to consider aspects of the curriculum encourage more reticent members to offer their opinions. Such meetings should be open to parents, teachers, and older children.

The children might also have representation on subcommittees, elected from their class groups, to serve as planning groups, and to search out needed data on community-school matters which are related to their projects or to the school welfare. They can in such ways help with school routines or handle situations in which their judgment would be adequate.

The Parent-Teacher Association might make its program of study in keeping with the over-all program for the district or school as headed by the Advisory Council; the membership of these two groups would probably overlap to some extent. The parent-teacher study programs would be likely to be planned around the child, the family, and community problems as they are affected by the local and world social and economic situations. To make possible the use of the school as a service center for the community, study groups might meet in the school to study and to work in the activities there.

Out-of-school groups join school-community projects. Organizations such as the Red Cross, public health, public service groups, and community centers are willing to cooperate in school projects which have a bearing on education and community welfare. Working with lay organizations serves to inform the lay persons in the district of the school's program and interests, as well as to make the school activities more real to the pupils, i.e., less academic.

The school needs to know and use all the persons and agencies that might assist in the program. A revolving card file record which classifies people according to their talents, and lists the names, addresses, telephone numbers, and times available of possible contributors, is valuable. The up-to-date file helps to key the program to current community life. The person (or persons) responsible for public relations in the school-community program is in a strategic position to show

the public the interaction which takes place when people work and study together.

THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY WORK TOGETHER

Success has already attended organized school-community programs which have demonstrated in different types of communities the effect the study of such family problems as diet, housing, clothing, and recreation has on the health and general well-being of the people. Many experiments of this nature are fast becoming recognized parts of the school, for example, the Florida and other programs referred to earlier, which are organized for people from elementary to adult years and are based on the social, intellectual, and economic levels of the specific communities where the study goes on. In Florida, one result has been that old houses have been improved and new homes built.

Similar school studies in Kentucky have been combined with home experiments with gardens and chicken and goat raising, and have resulted in changed diet practices for many. In Vermont, Pennsylvania, and New Hampshire educational experiments in food and nutrition, clothing, and housing are also being sponsored by the Sloan Foundation. Although the studies are in beginning stages and largely in rural areas, their significance lies in the fact that through study of problems close to the needs of the people and the community life, academic learning is increased rather than reduced. In these districts, achievement tests and observation have already shown pupils greatly improved in knowledge, in reading and computing ability, and in social understanding.³

Organization of a community family life education program should move slowly, the first requisite being to get

³ Harold F. Clark, Maurice Seay, and H. E. Nutter, "Community Experiments in Kentucky and Florida," *Educational Method*, 20:6:274-280, March, 1941.

people interested in and friendly toward the program and each other.

Under the auspices of the United States Office of Education four different kinds of communities began in 1939 community-planned programs in education for home and family living. The communities chosen represented large and small city, semi-rural, and rural organizations. They were Toledo, Ohio; Wichita, Kansas; Box Elder County, Utah; and Obion County, Tennessee.

The purpose of the program in each instance was to coordinate the efforts of religious, educational, and social agencies to improve home and family living. The programs, which are still functioning, are financed jointly by the U. S. Office of Education, the state departments of education, and the local boards of education.

A review of certain aspects of the program initiated by Toledo, an industrial city of approximately 300,000 population, may serve as an example of procedure for similar types of cities, for its program has passed the experimental stage and is growing.

The schools have accepted the responsibility of leadership in the Family Life Education Program although many kinds of organizations are participating in the enterprise. Administrative authority rests with the Toledo Board of Education as represented by the Superintendent of Schools, a consultant of the U. S. Office of Education, the State Supervisor of Home Economics, and the staff of the Family Life Education Program.

The program began in a small way in 1939. A coordinator and planning committee made a survey of community needs and worked with the parent consultant who had been working under the Board of Education.

The staff now consists of a coordinator, a parent consultant, a preschool consultant, and an assistant coordinator. The present council, which is organized democratically from representatives of the cooperating agencies, serves as an interpretive and promotional body. The council, with members of the

staff, selects planning and operating committees from among interested persons and organizes the program as it develops. Members of the Family Life Education Program staff work directly with individuals and committees, and serve as resource and liaison persons who are responsible for keeping balance and unity in the program.

The Toledo program aims to promote better relationships within the family, growth and development of individual members of families, and more wholesome relationships between the family and the community. It also aims to develop leadership among lay and trained persons working in the program, to promote research in local resources in family life education and in the changing needs of Toledo people, and to work out means of evaluating the program as it develops. The Family Life Education Program is not considered a separate movement, but a clearing house or coordinating service. It acts as a yeast in the community, utilizing activities of organizations already there. Its leaders are therefore on the alert to serve the people through public and private agencies (including the schools) by means of many kinds of projects.*

Projects were first initiated in a limited number of school districts where interest, working facilities, and lay and trained leadership made it possible to experiment. The policy has been to promote the cooperative studies to a point where other interested people or organizations will assume responsibility for them. Many groups have been reached such as the P.T.A., mothers' study groups, Sunday school teachers, church groups, nurses, social workers, and members of women's clubs.

Parent education and child development was, of course, the core of the program, with psychological and mental hygiene aspects receiving the greatest attention. Nursery schools, sponsored privately or by the Works Progress Administration, were among the first developments. For two years, high school boys and girls who were studying child development

* Muriel W. Brown, "Community Action to Meet Family Needs," *Journal of Home Economics*, 34:7:439-441, September, 1942.

observed and assisted in the W.P.A. nursery schools. Other activities included individual consultation, classes in home-making and preparation for marriage for adult and college groups, and many smaller group projects. For example, different civic groups worked on better housing plans with government and city leaders, and school teachers and social workers studied together, attended mental hygiene clinics, and considered common problems of understanding and leadership. Marriage counseling in churches has been an outstanding development. Parent meetings, institutes, hobby projects, clinics, radio programs, and the press and literature have attracted public attention and increased the program's educational value.

In 1941 sixty-three organizations joined in a two-day Institute of Family Relations to consider what modern society demands of people in adjustment, what effect modern society has on family life, and what we need to know to cope with problems of modern living and to make it more successful. The Institute by its attendance alone—two thousand people attended—demonstrated what a community can do in a democratic consideration of the welfare of the group. It also motivated other smaller planning institutes.

At that time there seemed to be a need for better home-making study on the adult level, and new approaches to studying the needs of individual families. Helped forward by the national emphasis on nutrition, a nutrition education program was well received through 1941-1942. Homemakers, district nurses, W.P.A. housekeeping aides, home economics teachers, and others attended the courses. Besides making the Family Life Education Program concrete and real, and improving its relation with the elementary schools (teachers from twenty-one elementary schools attended), the study served as a link between parents' and children's learnings. Although interest in the courses lessened as more women became gainfully employed, valuable follow-up was maintained in 1943 through a one-page mimeographed bulletin which was carried home by 25,000 elementary school children.

The relationship of the Family Life Education Program to the schools is important as the reorganization of their curriculums takes place. Different elementary schools of Toledo have recognized to a certain extent the contribution of their subject courses to education for home and family life. For example: Home repairs are studied in industrial arts classes and small articles for the home are made in some schools; a community hobby exhibit is sometimes held; the quality of radio programs and their improvement is discussed; hand-loomed textiles are made and sold in one school where parents had helped the children construct the looms. Conferences have been held in some schools between teachers and parents about such curriculum problems as grade cards, their form, and their effect on the pupils.

More attention to correlation has been given by the high schools. For example, high school teachers who are teaching child care aides have had play kits assembled for use by and with young children. The high school pupils distributed these to the nursery schools, and many pupils had more interest in the growth of children through this and similar activities.

Early in 1943 the executive council of the Family Life Education Program realized that a better understanding was needed of the city-wide increasing juvenile delinquency. It was decided that little should be done about it until the group knew more about what causes the behavior of children and youth who are not conforming to our social mores. The president of the council appointed a steering committee which in turn set wheels in action to get a cross section of the city-wide situation. Representatives of thirty-six agencies and organizations worked on various fact-finding or other planning committees. The range of interest included the schools, the clergy, case-work agencies, the juvenile court and police department, personnel managers of industries, group work agencies, and health agencies.

Data, when summarized, gave excellent ideas of what is happening to families and people. Most groups agreed on the

following as major concerns: an increase in behavior problems of children and lower moral standards among adults; neglect of children and less parental guidance; signs of family breakdown and disorganization; too much money causing false standards. Some groups, but not the court and schools, saw the following as beneficial effects of the past ten to fifteen years: family unity enhanced and relationships improved in some cases; greater economic security and better standards of living in most families.

A conference sponsored by the thirty-six organizations was held in the fall of 1943 to consider the outlook for the family in Toledo and starting points for helpful action. Plans for evaluating results of the conference were made in advance. Approximately six hundred people attended the day's sessions, including students from the high schools and Toledo University, parents, ministers, a factory worker, physicians, and educators.

At the morning session Lawrence K. Frank explored the scope of the topic or theme of the conference, "What the American Family Faces." Smaller groups then considered different aspects of it. A complete summary of the plans, group discussions, conclusions, and subsequent action is contained in a report issued by the Family Life Education Program.⁵

Especially significant to the schools are the following conclusions, although all were basic.⁶

The family is basic in society and must be preserved. It is the business of religious, social, and educational agencies to examine their programs to discover further ways of meeting the needs of individuals and families toward this end.

Enrichment of the school curricula to include more offerings in the field of human biology and development of personality . . . is recommended.

⁵ Board of Education, Toledo, Ohio, Family Life Education Program: Report of a Community-Wide Conference on "What the American Family Faces," October 14, 1943.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 62.

More opportunities for participation of youth in community responsibility and discussion of problems should be offered to them.

Families and individuals need a code of values as a framework within which to live and on which to base their conduct.

No two persons or families can hold identical codes of values because of their peculiar inheritance and environment. The fundamental human needs which the family satisfies best should therefore be kept in mind as people are helped to understand their own needs, and to solve their difficulties as they live and adjust to their social group. Each neighborhood or community, unconsciously through group living, and consciously through such organized agencies as the schools (which guide and serve the people), holds values in connection with which family and personal decisions are made. Each community has, therefore, the responsibility to help people with their adjustments and to curb socially harmful influences so that religious, economic, social, and personal life may be lived on a good level.

Communities might have a more satisfying kind of democratic living if representative groups met, as in Toledo, in an effort to develop values toward which to work. Their program has held to a flexibility which permits freedom for individuals and working groups to pioneer and experiment as needs develop. Several outstanding trends are appearing. Better resources for work and study are available and increasing; people of like interests are wishing to think together; and the general pattern of an institute system is developing, made possible by the coordinated efforts of different groups—an example of real community cooperation.

PROGRAMS CREATE NEED FOR WORKING SPACES

The scope of a school-community program will extend to all parts of the area participating in it, whether it is a school district, city, or county. There will be nutrition and child care study classes, nursery schools, self-help sewing and food

canning centers, gardens to be made, and get-together dramatic, musical, or other recreation programs for adults and young people.

People will gather to make their plans where there are adequate working facilities and where they feel at ease. Private homes, community houses, county buildings, churches, colleges, and schools have been used. In the four experimental family life education programs, which have inspired similar programs in almost every state, the local boards of education have sponsored the programs and made available facilities for organizing and directing the projects, and for issuing printed educational materials.

Where the elementary schools are sharing in the programs, the pupils' projects may grow into a complicated cycle of experiences. For example, discussion of local housing might begin in an eighth grade citizenship class and extend into the community housing plans. One class actually furnished an apartment in a new housing project, with a resulting understanding of some of the financial problems of low income groups, and much cooperative work between the Negro and white children in the group.⁷ For such a project the class would need work spaces, the library, and the home-living study centers to study furnishings and to make some of them.

THE SCHOOL IS A PLANNING AND STUDY CENTER

The school is a desirable place in which to center planning, study, and project activities. If the school personnel are in accord with the goals of the over-all program and if a democratic kind of cooperation prevails, adults will also be encouraged to make the school their headquarters.

The size of the school and the numbers of pupils, teachers, parents, and other out-of-school people who might use the meeting and working rooms will affect the kinds of spaces and equipment to be provided. A nursery school or play cen-

⁷ Mabel E. Irlé, "Ninth Graders Furnish a Model Apartment for \$10," *Journal of Home Economics*, 34:6:350-351, June, 1942.

ter, a kindergarten, or enlarged facilities for older pupils' rest, play, and luncheon may also need to be provided.

THE HOME-LIVING ROOMS ARE USED BY ELEMENTARY PUPILS AND OTHERS

The home-living rooms are needed by pupils as laboratories for experiences which cannot be had in the classrooms. Classes study hospitality by having different kinds of social experiences. In these rooms are held the meetings of the junior 4H Club, the Scouts, and other clubs. Pupils entertain their friends and parents with luncheons and tea parties. They prepare and serve the meals, keep the rooms in order, have play practice, and sew, make, and assemble their costumes for the plays.

Teachers use the rooms when they wish an informal environment for an activity, and for assembling the reference library, exhibit materials, visual aids, and other materials for teaching home-living and homemaking activities.

Parents and teachers use the rooms for informal conferences about pupils' progress, and for their own joint planning and preparing for study programs. The rooms serve also for small or large group meetings. Teachers' committee and weekly staff meetings are made social over a cup of tea served in the living room. The attractive setting afforded by the rooms tends to keep up and increase enrollment in adult study programs which are a part of the school-community program.

Those who plan to establish or improve a home-living center will wish to take inventory of the space, equipment, and other furnishings on hand, and to build on them. Modifications that are needed may become evident as the program is begun and activities are held somewhere in the school. At the same time, the teachers, especially the home economics specialists, will wish to present to the administrators a well-thought-out long-time and immediate program of improvement in working facilities. This will indicate the teachers' knowledge of the possible scope of the changes needed, and

the expense involved. A program of expansion or improvement of unusual clarity lists changes, new equipment, supplies, books, and other teaching materials needed (1) for the current year, (2) for the following year, and (3) for the future. Costs and descriptions or specifications for each item should accompany an over-all budget estimated by the teachers. Prices are of value to administrators because the number of low-cost items required in a home-style laboratory, unpriced, often distracts attention from the larger pieces of equipment.

Changes and new equipment need not be elaborate, but should be suited to the use to be made of the living center; therefore, they must be adaptable.

Many levels of living will be found in most communities. The educator who measures satisfactory teaching by the growth which occurs in pupils will therefore strive to have the school environment approximate desirable and attainable home-living standards in the local community.

The entire interior of the school should be designed informally, the character of each room being determined by the kind of life that is likely to take place there. One sixth grade building is recalled where the large square entrance hall was designed as a home living room, with a spacious wood fireplace at one side, and bookcases, easy chairs, tables, and sofas at opposite sides. One can easily picture the social gatherings of the school held there.

The school that can have no separate home-living room needs some kind of home-living center in each classroom. This might be the corner in the early primary room where the "house" is constructed by the children, and is supplemented by a hot-plate, sink, and portable kitchen for supplies. Such a plan is a makeshift, but it is better than none. Books on family life might be among the books, bright pottery, and dishes on the low shelves built on one side of the classroom. A home-living room where the intermediate and upper elementary groups carry on more elaborate projects would then supplement the classroom equipment.

New spaces are sought. A spacious room, furnished as a home-living room and located above the ground floor, separate from the cafeteria and near the center of activities in the smaller school, can serve for home-living activities for the children of all the preschool and elementary years. In the larger school, or where classes are large, the home-living center needs to be large enough to accommodate pupils at work without crowding, because for some experiences the entire class must be in the same room at one time.

In districts where the space in school buildings cannot be extended to greater capacity, it frequently has been found expedient to take over a small house or apartment near the school, and to demonstrate to the community what can be done with an older building to make it homelike at small expense. The apartment (or house) then becomes the laboratory where the pupils practice home-living skills and social graces. This kind of adaptation has been successful in rural as well as in city or consolidated school situations.

Certain schools have solved their remodeling problems by converting two rooms of the building into one large room and former cloak rooms into storage and food-service spaces. Where space is found—and it is most desirable that it be located on the main floor, or at least above ground—it is transformed into the living-room style laboratory which becomes the social center for the entire school. Here may be held many activities in addition to the classes, demonstration lessons, and small and large conferences desired by the pupils, teachers, and parents. A one- or two-unit kitchen adjacent to this room, with large storage closets, may prove adequate for a small sixth grade school.

THE LABORATORY IS FURNISHED AS A HOME

Whether the room is large or small, there are standards of usefulness and beauty to be followed in furnishing it.

All parts of the room or rooms should be adequately lighted for study; artificial light, provided for dark days, should be

supplied by table and floor lamps, correctly placed to eliminate eyestrain. Ventilation should, of course, be good.

The floors, walls, ceilings, and windows should be as much like those of a home as possible. A durable broadloom rug is not a great extravagance, if it is in accordance with community standards. Other suitable floor coverings such as beautifully designed linoleum are available. High ceilings can be lowered by bringing the color of the ceiling down several inches on the wall and finishing it with a suitable border.⁸ Curtains and shades at the windows should be kept in harmony with the interior of the room. At the same time the architecture of the exterior of the building should not be disregarded. The curtains should be attractive yet durable in quality so that the children can keep them clean. Wall hangings, pictures, bowls of flowers, books in a home-style bookcase, and magazines are as important as the sewing machines and stoves.⁹ The children will enjoy them more if they are permitted to help in their selection or making.

Careful planning is needed to make the living room adaptable for many uses. A blackboard for use in committee meetings as well as in classes can be flush with the wall. It should have a narrow chalk rail, and be concealed when not in use by a suitable wall hanging which is hung on a rod and equipped with rings and a cord so that it can be pulled over the board.¹⁰

Other softening details may be thought of to help this room to encourage relaxation. All the equipment should represent a living standard which the majority of the pupils might attain, and should be durable, yet artistic, and homelike rather than institutional in character. For example, a knee-hole or Governor Winthrop desk is as useful as the school-room style, and easier to live with.

The room might have bookshelves, a reading stand, easy

⁸ Ivor Spafford, *Fundamentals in Teaching Home Economics*, p. 145.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 340.

¹⁰ U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, *Space and Equipment for Homemaking Instruction*, p. 83.

chairs, and possibly a davenport at one end of the room, with a drop-leaf table and buffet at the opposite end, preferably nearest the kitchen. A child's corner with toys, a low table and chair, and picture books will care for the occasional young visitor. Folding chairs and tables for use in sewing and for conferencing groups can be stored out of sight, yet convenient to the room, thus keeping the informal and "livable" quality of the room uppermost.

When the living room is used as the dining room, a one- or two-unit kitchen is placed adjacent to and connecting with it, as in a home. This is adequate space for serving simple meals, and for class use when the groups work on the unit or family group plan, where several kinds of experiences are carried on at one time.

The living room-centered laboratory serves larger schools. In larger schools, and in those where adults also use the school for community activities, a more extensive laboratory is a good investment. It should keep the homelike character, but more unit kitchens, larger storage spaces, a larger living room, and possibly a room with bath are needed.

Four- or five-unit kitchens which accommodate 20 to 24 pupils are considered adequate in the larger laboratory. The equipment is planned for four or five "family" groups of four to six children. When the laboratory is used by primary and elementary pupils, it is necessary to have the sinks, stoves, tables, and chairs in the units at different heights from the floor, so that all pupils may work comfortably. If it is desirable in a given community, the equipment in each unit might represent a different family income level, so that pupils can learn the comparative values of the equipment. This provides another consumer experience which should help the pupils acquire standards for buying household goods.

It is economical of space and time to have the larger food units as part of the living-dining room, as in the first plan discussed. The teacher can then work with all groups, some of which will be engaged in the living room part of the space

*The Conveniences of a
Portable Kitchen*

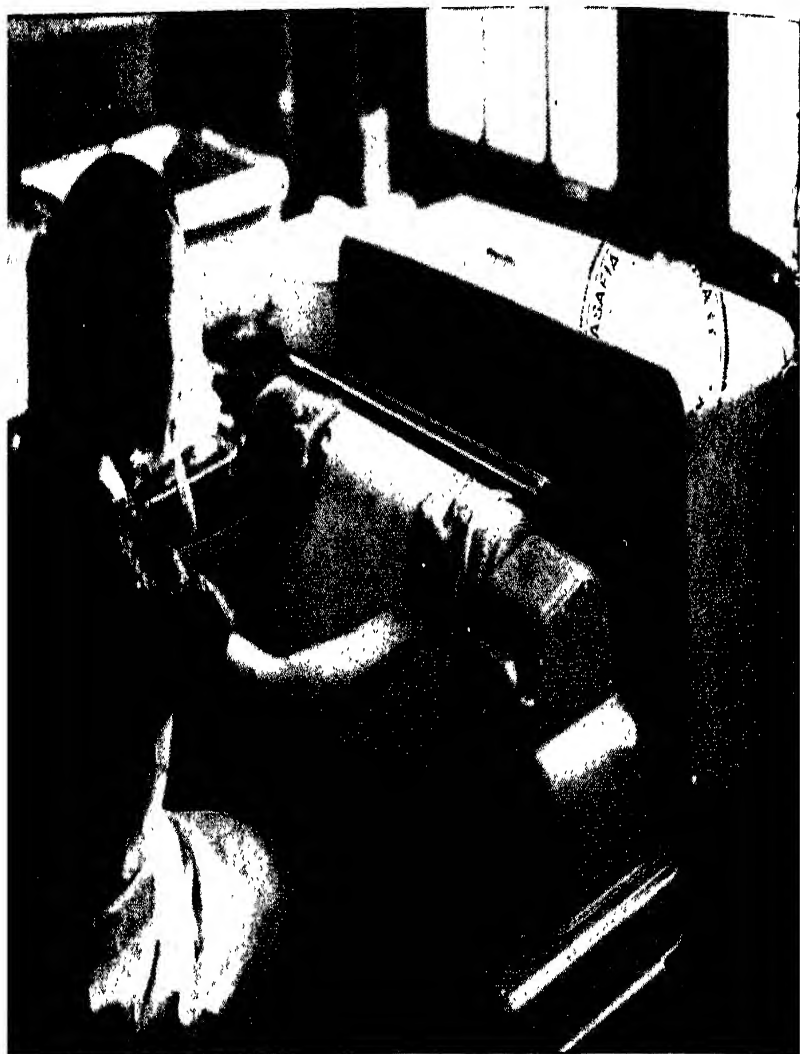


COURTESY STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE,
PLATTSBURG, N. Y.



*Proving the Convenience
of a Wall-Cabinet Ironing
Board*

COURTESY EMSWORTH ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL, AVONWORTH, PA.



COURTESY BOARD OF EDUCATION, PHILADELPHIA, PA. (SHOEMAKER JR. H. S., MEDIA, PA.)

Learning to Iron the Easy Way

while others work in the kitchens. This plan also facilitates servicing school social functions.

Laundry facilities are made possible by having a built-in ironing board and a laundry-style sink in one food unit.

If a room with bath completes the apartment, it can be used as a demonstration child's bedroom and playroom, for home nursing demonstrations of bedmaking and bathing, and as a restroom for an overtired child. Such a room is used as a practice place for first aid, as a center for cleaning up, polishing shoes, mending tears, and giving demonstrations of shampooing and manicuring. If such a space is not available, the small equipment and roll-away bed needed for these activities may be kept in the storage closet and used in the living room when needed.

Storage spaces are large. It is essential to have ample storage spaces when the arrangement is of the living room-centered kind. Of course one storage room with spaces designed for specific uses will join the food unit space. (In a remodeled building cabinets in the room are often substituted for storage closets, but they may crowd other equipment where building room units are not large.) A second storage space, leading from or near the living room is used for the equipment for child care, home nursing, and sewing and for pupils' own supplies and project materials. The folding tables and chairs for sewing are kept here and set up in the living room as they are needed.

HOME MECHANICS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS REQUIRES SPACE

In addition to the home-living laboratory, it is desirable to have a shop where household mechanics and noisy projects (and those which require much time for completion) may be located. These include such projects as scenery making, repainting or finishing furniture and small equipment from the rooms and other laboratories (and for home), and other heavy construction. Work benches, large tools, looms, elec-

trical equipment, and other equipment and materials constitute essentials for working and studying home mechanics. The laboratory might be made suitable to the use of pupils and adults and serve the community for long hours daily.

In older school buildings the changes suggested might be begun by converting two classrooms into one large room, and partitioning off the areas needed for different activities. If partitions are used, they are best when low enough to prevent isolation of the small groups working in them. The old hollow-square style of food laboratory, which still exists in certain buildings, can be made into a unit plan by rearranging the equipment and providing serving tables for each unit. For example: Two desks can be placed back-to-back, the sink placed at one end of the unit, and the serving table set to one side of the unit. Or, the sink, work-table, and stove can be arranged against the wall as in modern home kitchens, with drain boards and cupboards arranged in a unit around the sink. This reduces the number of sinks needed and makes room for the serving table and chairs. Such adjustments have, even in small laboratories, cleared enough space for a living-room area. Details of laboratory planning are given in the bulletin of the United States Office of Education to which reference has been made.¹¹

METHODS OF STUDY ARE MEANS TO AROUSE INTEREST

Teachers who guide pupils in school or adults of the community in democratic situations such as have been described permit them to plan ways and means for carrying out their study, allowing the situation to suggest the best methods to be used. This enlists interest at once. The methods used will vary with the project and the purposes of a person or a group determine the ways and means they select to reach the desired goals.

If the situation is well evaluated and the goals of the pro-

¹¹ *Ibid.*, Chap. I.

posed study are defined before study and action take place, an intricate combination of individual and group methods will be likely to develop. Creative thought and action are encouraged if people are free to work in a democratically organized situation. There will be discussion and planning—after the third grade pupils begin to have ability to deal with more abstract ideas and plans. Evaluating an idea, deciding that it is worth pursuing further, setting goals, and planning first steps toward them draw out the methods of procedure.

There will be at times individual, at times group, and at other times both methods of study going on in the same group. Each plan includes the assembling of facts through reading and library reference work, group discussion, practice or experiment in the laboratory or in the community situation, excursions into the local community to locate materials, to study situations, or to work, dramatization, problem solving, and creative construction.

No method or sequence of methods should take precedence over another. For example: A kindergarten child creates a painting; in it are people who, he says, are his family members. From this the group becomes interested in talking about what the family members do each day, and dramatization may result. Or, a mothers' group is disturbed about the behavior of their elementary grade boys and girls, and through the leader's guidance becomes interested in reading about the forces that predispose children of that age to behave as they do. As a result of the reading they might be encouraged to set up goals to achieve in their own family living.

An outstanding contribution which teachers may make to individual and group study is to provide a wealth of up-to-date, good study materials, or point the way to them.

STUDY MATERIALS OF MANY KINDS ARE ESSENTIAL

The school that has a wide variety of suitable, good, and up-to-date study materials for pupils, beginning with the

youngest ones, is fostering the inquiring mind and creative thinking.

The readers and picture books about family living for young people lead to stories, novels, and motion pictures about wholesome, adventurous family living which provoke thought and discussion of it among older folks. So-called textbooks are best used for new information and inspiration, for help on specific projects, and to inspire reading for pleasure or consultation of other references.

State and national government publications and commercial supplementary materials are available at little or no cost, and, chosen by well-defined standards, offer invaluable teaching aids. The school is fortunate indeed which has a revolving fund through which to buy paints, dyes, special cloth and paper, and other findings, the need for which cannot be foreseen in advance of the particular project.

Visual aids of many kinds are taking a foremost place in education. The excursion and the demonstration are not always recognized as visual aids, but are effective and rapid teaching-learning methods. Bulletin boards, newspaper and magazine graphs, diagrams, film slides, comic strips, and audio-visual materials present endless opportunities. Although today there are comparatively few motion pictures made especially for the elementary years, those that are made for junior and senior high school use may be used for younger pupils. They provide much factual knowledge in concrete situations, and children disregard parts in them which they do not understand. They stimulate thought, language expression, and creative activity. They must be used in the schools with as great discrimination as other teaching methods, and *teacher guidance is needed to help pupils interpret what they see and to think critically about it.*

Commercial agencies have good educational films on loan at low cost. Museums spend much time, effort, and money on materials in the form of exhibits, film strips, and sound pictures which are specially adapted to children. Each community presents natural and educational resources which di-

rectly or indirectly contribute to the family life education program. Parks provide inexpensive or free recreational spaces. Commercial houses encourage study tours and lend space for pupil exhibits.

The school personnel, or directors of the family life education program might help local program committees to operate a lending bureau which would collect and circulate certain study materials, and supply information on sources for obtaining others. The prevalence of such cooperation is likely to produce a wholesome interaction among different groups and between the school and its patrons.

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Materials and Other Means of Instruction

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION STUDIES, Series II, *Motion Pictures in Education*, 5:6, May, 1941: Reginald Bell, Leo F. Cain, Lillian Lamoreaux, and others. Washington, D. C. 178pp.

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TAYLOR, KATHERINE WHITESIDE, "Cooperative Play Groups," *Journal of Home Economics*, 36:6:321-326, June, 1944.

TYLER, RALPH W., "The Place of the Textbook in Modern Education," *Harvard Educational Review*, 11:3:329-338, May, 1941.

TEACHING AIDS

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NATIONAL BROADCASTING COMPANY; COLUMBIA BROADCASTING SYSTEM. Program listings on local stations.

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XII. Evaluating the Program

THE SCHOOL EVALUATES

The program of evaluation of education for home and family life has a unique place in the elementary school program because of its stress on personal and family life values. As a continuing emphasis through the years it is concerned with all aspects of the pupil's growth, i.e., physical, intellectual, moral or social, and spiritual, attempting to keep growth balanced and at a high level.

A rounded program of evaluation recognizes these needs, noting at each age the child's expanding interests and ability to study, think critically, and make independent decisions. It should help him to share in family and group experiences in willing give-and-take and to respect the opinions of others. If the evaluation experiences are adequate for him, a child will be encouraged to undertake new experiences which are increasingly difficult, and which show his growing sensitiveness to social interrelationships.

Evaluation of growth and learning is broad, being an integral part of all experiencing. (For this reason when evaluating any experience one must recognize over-all objectives of education as well as component parts of learning.) In the immediate situation it includes the purposing and working methods of those who are studying, alone or together, and the measurement of what is learned from their study. It is continuous, therefore it is concerned with the potentialities as well as the abilities of the individual, and with his social competence.

As the experiences are planned by those taking part in them, and goals are set in terms of what they wish to do, so the ways of measuring what is learned and the appraisal of the results of the measuring should be a teacher-pupil or group activity.

There are numerous objective and subjective ways of knowing what experiences pupils need at a given time. The many devices by which their capacities, interests, and individual differences may be diagnosed are well known, although use of them may not be as general as might be desired. For example: intelligence and achievement tests are examples of objective means; the one used before experiences to keep learning on a high level, and the other used after them to determine whether the instruction has been adequate. Experiments have shown the degree of understanding of primary children about the role of different family members, demonstrating a new use for the interview and rating methods.¹

Teacher-made tests and other evaluation devices, even pupil-formulated ones, permit the appraisal of learning through home life experiences at the elementary level. Self-evaluation is an important part of the learning process through which a pupil may increase his ability to think objectively, to reason, and to become a self-directing person. The use of observational records, progress charts, group-study procedures, study guides, and other group and self-evaluation means have shown a pupil's ability to evaluate progress in goals the group has set up, or he himself has sought in tangible, or in the less tangible, personal achievements.

Those guiding the home and family life experiences in the modern school share the evaluation of them with the child, his parents, the participating teachers, the administrators, and the guidance specialists of the school. Persons in the community with whom the child is associated in joint school-community projects also have a place in evaluating his progress, for the child's experiences are a product of his whole environment, reflecting community life and contributing to it.

Evaluation is the foundation of a guidance program which

¹ Roy J. Wasson, "Measuring Primary Grade Children's Understanding of Home and Family Relationships," *Elementary School Journal*, 41:2:108-117, October, 1940.

helps the child to learn and to become increasingly able to evaluate his own progress. When a child enters the preschool or early primary years, his teachers and parents cooperate, in the modern school, in appraising his needs and providing the experiences most essential for him. Later he will have a part in this procedure.

SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE APPRAISAL ARE INTERWOVEN

Extensive research has shown the effectiveness of combined objective and subjective appraisal of pupils' needs. The results of intelligence, interest, and aptitude tests form one basis upon which to select experiences and adapt them to children's potentialities and abilities, rate of learning, and personal-social needs at the time. These devices are used when needed throughout the school years to determine some of pupils' strengths and difficulties, and probable development.

Subjective appraisal by teachers and parents is valuable, and is considered reliable and valid if it is based upon specific evidence and the judgment of several persons.

Interview and observational methods are used largely with the young child to determine the experiences he needs and how he is maturing and learning. A child reveals these through his behavior, which is an expression of his understanding of a situation and the way he feels at the time. Recorded observations of a young child's action in concrete situations are objective statements of what he is learning and failing to learn. For this reason, cumulative descriptions of a child's behavior in many situations give accurate pictures of him, and reveal causes underlying the behavior. They suggest to his teachers what guidance he needs.

Observations valuable in directing the young child include informal ones made in the home as well as more formal ones made at school. Driscoll suggests that the behavior of the young child which should receive the closest scrutiny is that in which his reactions to a situation are contrary to what

might be expected, or where he acts under compulsion of unusual drives, interests, or emotional pressures.² She suggests questions to guide one in interpreting children's behavior, and gives clues for estimating the child's degree of maturity.³

A form of observation and subjective evaluation used frequently with children under four years of age is time-sampling. In this procedure, behavior is observed and recorded during specific time intervals, notations being kept over a period of days, weeks, or longer, and then interpreted. Time-samplings are recorded while the action is taking place, and evaluated at the close of the series. Several persons may take samplings of behavior at the same time, and pool their judgments of the evidence obtained. Such things as attitudes, initiative, co-operation, persistence, dependability, aggressiveness, and the length of time the child takes to react to a situation are evaluated by this method.⁴

The anecdotal record, a form of observation comparable to the time-sampling of behavior, is used to record progress of the older elementary pupil. It is a written, objective account of what a pupil does, especially when he is free to determine his own action. As techniques for collecting and summarizing the data are being simplified, their use is increasing in schools interested in noting pupils' improved behavior rather than grading them only on subject matter learned. To be of value the anecdote must be a very objective statement of what happens, and include all elements in the situation needed to interpret the incident. There are three forms of anecdote commonly used: (1) a word picture of the pupil in action, with no accompanying comments; (2) a record of action with an interpretation; (3) a statement of what occurred and a comparison made of the pupil's present and

² Gertrude P. Driscoll, *How to Study the Behavior of Children*, pp. 27-29.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 30-64.

⁴ J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Techniques for Measuring Newer Values in Education," *Journal of Educational Research*, 35:7:522, March, 1942.

earlier behavior, and known capacities. In the last case, a recommendation for remedial attention is given.⁵

Anecdotes are considered more valuable by some teachers when they are limited to recording a pupil's progress toward immediate goals that the group has set up, or a particular personal improvement for which a child is striving. In this situation the pupil may participate in the subjective interpretation which is made after several anecdotes about him have been collected. For example: One teacher, who believes in the self-educational value of anecdotes, has her pupils assist in the interpretation of those she collects which show their behavior. She uses a loose-leaf notebook in which several pages may be devoted to each pupil. At a conference held with each pupil at least once a month she talks over with him his progress and next steps. She permits the pupil to have his records after their conference, for future reference, and to remove any fear he may have of them.

Anecdotes are used by most schools, however, as part of the cumulative record, for they show progress in personality development and social adaptation. Their use has given help not obtainable otherwise for interpreting pupils' behavior.

Anecdotes are recorded in brief and easily usable form to reduce labor and make them practical for the busy teacher. The following anecdote of a third grade pupil's character development illustrates also the principle of recording.

October 28: B. was chosen student council representative by the children.

November 16: The suggestion was made today that teams for games be composed of boys versus girls. B. said three times that he thought the teams should be mixed. The group voted to have boys against girls. He accepted the outcome of the group vote with good grace and entered into the games happily.

November 26: B. took charge of assembly today with fine poise.⁶

⁵ Willard S. Elsbree, *Pupil Progress in the Elementary School*, p. 70.

⁶ Fern H. Bowes, "The Anecdotal Behavior Record in Measuring Progress in Character," *The Elementary School Journal*, 39:6:432, February, 1939.

Bowes suggests that a quick method for estimating the value of a series of anecdotes is to check those in harmony with major educational values being sought with a plus, and contrary ones with a minus.⁷ Smith and Tyler⁸ suggest objectives in producing abbreviated record forms. Although intended for use with secondary school pupils, the same procedures are adaptable to elementary school use. If teachers who are working as a group compile a list of the immediate educational objectives being sought, it may be used to interpret the anecdotes of each pupil and the general progress of the group.

Anecdotes are helpful in making clear to a pupil his strengths and difficulties when the teacher, his mother, and he confer about his progress. Diaries kept by upper elementary pupils may be used to develop appreciation of family life, like the stories of what the family does which are told by younger children; at the same time they reveal a child's understanding of his family, his favorite activities, his social responsiveness, and his needs. The teacher may use the diary as background information for her guidance. As part of a pupil's cumulative record, the diary may show his ability to organize his thoughts, to draw conclusions, and to communicate them through written expression.

OBJECTIVE TESTS HAVE TEACHING VALUE

Objective test questions have a teaching value if the pupil looks upon them as one of the tools for study. In their various forms, i.e., true-false, multiple choice, and matching, they may be part of daily as well as summary experiences. For example: In primary groups one to three problem-solving questions may be used frequently to see if children are thinking and gaining ability to apply what they are learning. Groups of questions used for upper elementary pupils should

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 433.

⁸ Eugene Smith and Ralph Tyler, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*, pp. 467-468.

be more inclusive, comprising several kinds of objective style questions including the inference or problem-solving ones.

To be valuable in estimating what a child is learning, the objective test should be extensive enough to make an adequate sampling of pupils' knowledge about the study in progress.

Objective tests may be used in several ways: (1) to find out what a pupil knows as a background for a proposed new series of experiences; (2) to discover errors and motivate study during the experiences; (3) to show in summary the facts and principles that have been gained, and how they may be used in new situations; (4) to show teachers how effective the study has been, and to help them select suitable teaching materials for enriching later experiences; (5) to verify the findings obtained through the use of other kinds of evaluation means such as essays, rating scales, and observations.

Excellent guides are available to assist teachers in formulating test questions and the many kinds of study guides used by pupils.⁹ In a program of home and family life education, any kind of test should be kept in proper perspective to subjective forms of evaluation, such as the group conference method which is adaptable to the broad, cooperative program.

PUPILS LEARN TO EVALUATE

Opinions differ as to the ability of children to evaluate their own progress. One indication that the child is maturing and learning is his increasing ability to evaluate. Teaching children how to think and to become independent in making choices during the primary years lays the foundation for self-evaluation in the upper elementary groups. Pupils' self-evaluation, well guided by the teacher, gives the child objective evidence by which to know what he has learned or not learned.

⁹ Clara M. Brown, *Evaluation and Investigation in Home Economics*, pp. 138-163; 171-188.

RECORD FOR A WEEK—GROOMING

Name _____ Date: March

What I have done	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Scrubbed teeth at least three times.							
Washed before coming to school.							
Combed my hair.							
Cleaned my nails.							
Had a clean handkerchief.							
Hung up clothes after school and at night.							
Laid out clean clothes for school before retiring.							
Washed hosiery (girls).							
Pressed my clothes (girls).							
Others.							
Comments:							
Pupil _____							
Mother _____							
Teacher _____							

If they have evaluation techniques which are well adapted to what they wish to evaluate, and if they know how to use them, pupils are likely to be more critical of their work and their study methods than adults. Devices such as observation, objective tests, progress charts, product scales, check lists, and rating scales are excellent study aids. Used wisely, they help promote thought and discussion, and avoid the occurrence of verbatim study and drill for facts. They help to keep learning at a high level.

The use of the progress chart, for example, measures accomplishment over a wide range of goals; from learning to eat a balanced diet, to gaining weight over a period of time; from keeping well groomed to wearing suitable clothes for different activities; from learning to stitch by the sewing machine to mastering different sewing processes and caring for the machine; or from setting the table for dinner to planning the menu, buying the food, serving the meal, and cleaning up after it.

Progress charts are specially helpful in encouraging home participation. Often through them a mother's cooperation with the teacher is enlisted. A simple progress chart on grooming and dress for the twelve-year-old might be as shown on page 257.

The pupils compile the goals they will work for, but teachers' guidance will be needed to keep goals within the realm of possibility. For example: In certain districts, it would be suitable to include the goal of changing to fresh clothes daily. In others where frequent laundering in the home is impossible, such a goal would be embarrassing or cause false recording. Children should not be marked on progress charts; the rewards lie in personal satisfaction and the formation of better habits.

Progress charts may encourage group effort. They motivate effort when they are placed on the bulletin board and children check daily what they have accomplished. For example:

GOAL: LEARNING TO OPERATE THE SEWING MACHINE

Place a check in the space under your name and opposite the skill when you have mastered it.

Skills	Jean	Mary	Alice	Frances	Susan
Stitching straight by foot power machine.					
Stitching by electric machine.					
Stitching on edge of straight fold.					
Stitching on a curve.					
Threading the machine.					
Opening and checking machine.					
Closing machine correctly.					
Adjusting length of stitch to fabric.					
Adjusting tension to weight of thread.					

Product scales help pupils to evaluate quality in their projects. They are pictures or actual models which show gradations in quality and against which the product is compared. Teacher- or pupil-made articles which show gradations on three or four levels are probably better for use with young pupils than pictured ones. They may be used satisfactorily with pupil-made rating scales. Teacher guidance in such an evaluation plan consists of the provision of suitable illustrative models and references, and supervision of individual and group working habits. The group sets up the evaluation procedures. Let us consider a rounded experience from its inspiration to its conclusion.

NEW DISH TOWELS

A seventh grade group of girls in an underprivileged neighborhood were inspired by attractive dish towels at school to make some like them for their home use. They did not have money for materials, but, stimulated by the sight of some towels their teacher had made from flour sacking, each pupil finally brought some sacking from home. They washed and bleached the cloth, straightened the edges, and cut the towels to the desired size. Width of hems was planned according to appearance and wearing quality. Product scales were used as models. The girls wished to decorate the towels and made original designs for them. Following the completion of the towels, the class decided to have a display of the towels, as they had seen exhibits at the county fair. Each towel was labeled with the cost of the towel and the time required to construct it, and given a number. The group worked out a rating scale for grading the towels, itemizing points to be evaluated such as the appearance of the hem, the quality of stitching, and the design. A committee was appointed to judge and award ribbons to the three best towels in the show. Three towels of A, B, and C quality had been models during construction and served as standards. These were the product scale, having been compiled from the work of a former group and borrowed for this one's use. Samples of stitching done on comparable material might also be used.

Pictures, exhibits of clothes, three-dimensional grouping of objects, table setting, and room arrangements may be studied objectively through check lists which form the basis for judging contests. Through these, pupils become increasingly critical of personal costume adaptations, flower arrangements, table setting, doll dressing or the making of clothes, hair arrangements, and many other kinds of artistic harmonies.

Visual aids are seen to be essential for this kind of creative growth. Some will be devised by the ingenious teacher with the help of many inexpensive or free materials. Museums issue catalogues of pictures ranging in cost from five cents to one dollar; magazines provide colorful studies of good arrange-

ment, but these must be selected with artistic judgment. It is most desirable that as pupils study and work out their applications of artistic design, they evaluate them themselves or with the help of their peers, as adult judgment alone may be too sophisticated for their understanding.

GROUP STUDY ENCOURAGES COOPERATIVE EVALUATION

Group and individual planning of experiences and evaluating results of them increases gradually during the primary and elementary years, thus encouraging a democratic way of living.

The group study method has been shown in some typical school projects. The group conference is an informal, democratic way by which pupils plan new experiences, and evaluate a progressing or completed series of experiences.

To the children, the purpose of the conference is to talk over what they will do next. The guidance of the teacher is needed to help them to recapitulate what has preceded in work or thought, and to become aware of their successes and important next steps. The teacher, who joins in the discussion only as a member of the group, is in a strategic position to keep before the pupils the goals they are striving for, and to encourage cooperative behavior and business-like procedures and social attitudes. The skillful teacher uses a few carefully placed questions to start thinking and to maintain balance in the discussion so that some conclusions are reached.

One may observe this procedure in the family life study groups. When the "family" gathers for conference in a circle, or in the home-living laboratories, discussion turns to what each has been doing at home in relation to the project under way. In other words, it becomes a progress report. The discussion frequently leads the children to talk freely about their home life. They reveal the things in which they are most interested, or happenings which they enjoyed or which disturbed them. From the conversation the teacher gets hints of the need for guidance, a home visit, or a new project.

After certain problems are brought to light and selected for

study, new goals are set up or former ones are revised. The purposes may be written on the blackboard, as this helps in their phrasing, directs attention to the main goals, and causes critical analysis. The "family" may be divided into smaller groups wishing to work on the same project or the same part of a larger one. In this situation, a pupil-leader conducts the group, and leaders are changed as the group decides.

In replanning during study and in follow-up discussion at the conclusion of an experience or a series of experiences, children are helped to deduce generalizations which may be useful to them in planning out-of-school use of what they have learned. Plans frequently take the form of new projects which grow directly from the former one. Guidance is needed to direct attention and interest toward more extended projects so that learning takes place.

Individual study and working guides, progress charts, objective tests, field excursions, moving pictures, the radio, and reference texts are tools of and supplementary aids to the conference, helping in evaluation of what is learned. Some of the most vivid experiences one has and the values gained by them are difficult to analyze. Growth occurring through them may be revealed in the conference periods, or only in later behavior—and rightly so.

Attitudes are evaluated by pupils. The ability to work and play together, to cooperate in school and home activities, and to carry responsibility expected of him are qualities a child can evaluate to some extent through group experiences. Qualities of his personality such as attitudes toward other members of the class or his family, willingness to share with others, aggressiveness, and the use he makes of his special abilities will be shown him to some extent by experiences with his peers. The degree of each quality held by a person cannot be so easily appraised, as only behavior in specific situations can be appraised.

A person must have opportunity to look at himself objectively in a social situation if he is to learn how to evaluate his

social attitudes. Hutchins¹⁰ used a special technique, the "situation schedule," to help eighth grade pupils, their teachers, and their mothers to evaluate the pupils' cooperative tendencies in a selected group of home, school, and play group situations. Teachers and pupils answered questions pertaining to five school situations; mothers, teachers, and pupils, to five play situations; and, in a personal home visit and interview, mothers gave their opinions on probable behavior in five home situations.¹¹

A composite summary showed that, on the whole, children think they are more cooperative in home and play situations than their mothers and teachers think they are, and more cooperative in school than their teachers think they are.

Although the situation schedule was judged to be limited in efficiency in estimating the *degree* of cooperation shown in home, school, and play situations, its use may increase adults' awareness of the need to educate children in cooperation (1) by making it possible for the child to cooperate, and (2) by helping him know that his cooperation is desired.

A second question considered in this study was whether the school provides adequate opportunities for pupils to cooperate. The same children and their teachers were questioned as to opportunities made in their school for pupil participation. Twenty activities which cross-sectioned those of the school were selected for analysis. Among other discoveries it was found that the school offers opportunity for cooperating in such tangible ways as assuming responsibility for cleanliness and neatness in classrooms, restrooms, and corridors; that pupils recognize that they have opportunity to cooperate by "belonging to school clubs," "helping to plan homeroom programs," and "helping to plan Home Arts and Industrial Arts classes." Other parts of the school program which offer some

¹⁰ Margaret Hutchins, *Cooperative Tendencies of Eighth Grade Children in the Ithaca Junior High School*, doctoral thesis, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., 1943.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 152, 162. (See Appendix, Exhibit G.)

opportunity for cooperative effort were found not to be used to their fullest capacity.

These studies revealed a need for more teacher-pupil planning of activities and more opportunity for shared responsibility in the entire school program and for pupils to evaluate themselves and others. They accent the value of extensive home visiting by the teacher or other school representative. Hutchins concludes also that mothers welcome visits to the home, if they are planned for in advance and handled tactfully; that "the personal interview procedure is successful only when it is initiated by a well-integrated person with insight and with an understanding of and an interest in people."¹² Better teacher-parent cooperation is indicated as a need in guiding boys and girls.

It would seem that a process similar to the situation schedule, in which typical situations that a child meets, involving honesty, fair play, tolerance, aggressiveness, and other personal-social qualities, are considered, would be a good learning-evaluating procedure for teacher, parent, and pupil, and would base guidance on greater understanding.

As maturity and insight are gained by the child, he should be increasingly able to evaluate his own and his immediate group's progress in acquiring knowledge, working techniques, understanding, and value judgments, and in assuming responsibility for being a cooperative member of his family, school, or social group.

RECORDING, MARKING, AND REPORTING REFLECT SCHOOL OBJECTIVES

Traditional systems of recording, grading, and reporting pupils' progress, still firmly entrenched in many school systems, will change only as the teachers, parents, and pupils concerned with a given school or school system desire to know to what extent the newer objectives of education are being accomplished. World-wide attention to making the new re-

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 119.

education for older students more effective in vocational, economic, and social ways should hasten the transition in elementary schools from grading proficiency in subject matter to estimating the efficiency of the child as an individual.

The problem of changing from a subject-centered grading system to recognizing the child as an efficient citizen in his school is many-sided. In revising its program of recognition the school must decide how to gather evidence of pupils' learning and compile summary estimates of their growth, how to state pupil progress fairly and accurately in terms of the school's objectives, how to report progress of pupils to parents, and how to educate teachers, parents, and pupils in a cooperative plan of estimating, recording, and reporting progress.

Ways of effective gathering of data and pooling of opinions on pupils' learning have been seen in the observational records, in personal interviews with parents, in pupil-parent-teacher conferences, and in other evaluation processes. Teachers' class records include pertinent data about each pupil in the diagnostic, intelligence, and achievement test results, records of his physical and mental health status, parents' letters, anecdotes on his behavior, home situation, and family cooperation, the child's own work reports, and other materials which picture the direction and rate of his growth.

The cumulative record has been mentioned. To this file is transferred annually that material from the teacher's current file which is pertinent to a continuous record of the child's growth. To this record also is added material which shows something of the child's home and social background and participation, i.e., significant parent letters, pupil project reports, and school and community projects engaged in.

Pupils of the primary and intermediate years, because of their collecting interests, may get satisfaction by keeping records and other evidence of what they have done. Upper elementary pupils may have a record folder of their own, or have access to the teacher's file. In these the child may place progress records of current projects, working plans of cooperative

projects, or materials he is gathering for use in his project.¹³ In the home-living activities, pupils frequently have several projects concurrently, and the folder is convenient for the safekeeping of plans and records. There is danger, however, in an over-emphasis on written appraisals, valuable as they are in teaching pupils to organize and to express themselves in writing. Records should be kept in proportion to other tools of learning.

Methods of marking change. Judgment indicates the desirability of initiating changes in the marking system only after the purpose of the change is understood, and then making changes gradually. Some schools have moved from the letter, percentile ranking, or other grading plan toward stating progress that has been made in specific goals, via the satisfactory-unsatisfactory, or other indefinite indicators. A method which gives a picture of degrees of progress is to state what each child has accomplished and what seems to be the cause of difficulties the child has, and to make suggestions for future experiences, instruction, and guidance the home might give.

The newer system of marking and reporting is, admittedly, more complicated than the former numerical or letter marks. Teachers and parents who are convinced of its worth and practicability are experimenting with report forms which allow space for written descriptions and recommendations.

Parents who have been cooperative in introducing marking and reporting in terms of what has been learned have expressed satisfaction with the new system. Others undoubtedly will approve if the school assists them to think in terms of objectives rather than grades. Certain schools have used special bulletins to parents on topics relating to school experiences, explaining the major goals of the school program for the quarter, term, or year. A letter, preferably an informal one, to parents explaining the recording and reporting system should precede any radical changes. Certain schools have encouraged an exchange of reports with parents. In their letters

¹³ J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Techniques for Measuring Newer Values in Education*, p. 523.

parents tell of growth they have noticed since an earlier letter, of home activities and cooperation the child has shown, and of special guidance they wish the school to give.

Experimental groups, finding the personal letter too laborious when large groups of children are concerned, seem to favor the booklet form of report which allows space for written comments and replies from parents. When used in combination with parent-teacher-pupil conferences, this method has been found satisfactory.

Teachers' records of group progress interest parents. Teachers of the preschool, primary, and elementary groups have found it valuable to them, and informative for parents to keep a record of group experiences. Especially important are records in which children of different age groups, teachers other than the homeroom one, and parents have cooperated. The records may be compiled at the close of the half or full year, and may become part of the all-school record showing what goals have been accomplished. In a progressive modern program, the post-experience record of those which, when evaluated, have proved of worth becomes a foundation for curriculum improvement the following year. Teachers using this method of program building meet frequently during the year to evaluate the activities in terms of the stated goals of the learning unit, and to make revisions as the experiences progress, so that the concluding record represents an appraised one. Although all teachers in a given school may not operate on the plan, teachers engaged in the core program might initiate it there.

Promotions necessitate adaptations in marking. Grading, marks, and promotion have traditionally been associated with success in school. Until a different system is more prevalent than it is today, teachers of upper elementary pupils about to enter high school may have to translate informal statements of pupil accomplishments, made on the basis of a pupil's betting his own previous record, into letter form, and rank pupils for promotion. Evaluation of standing in many different kinds of experiences can be made by computing the

value of letter grades, giving each a numerical value, and in turn weighting each experience numerically so that it can be scored comparably with test scores.¹⁴ In this manner, correlated experiences which include many subject materials are given recognition.

If the computation of values is made cooperatively by the teacher and pupils, the pupils gain greater appreciation of each kind of experience and the goals they have worked for, and working for grades may be minimized.

As children mature so unevenly and at different rates of speed during the preadolescent period, those who are seemingly failing should be permitted to go into experiences which are new or more suitable for them, and should have extra instruction or special guidance so that limiting causes may be removed and the child may be helped to gain suitable social adjustment. •

Evaluation of the school program thus includes determining major goals; helping the child and the group find the experiences they need most; devising means of carrying out the experiences; and making possible a democratic process of evaluating, recording, and reporting the results of the experiences. It is therefore important that the educational goals to be sought be mutually understood and acceptable to those concerned with them, and that evaluation become recognized as a foundational part of each phase of an experience.

THE COMMUNITY-CENTERED PROGRAM IS EVALUATED

The school- and the community-centered program of education for personal, home, and family life have so much in common that the progress of each may be judged by similar standards.

Standards which seem suitable for judging the school's program are suggested as one guide in surveying the effectiveness

¹⁴ Clara M. Brown, *Evaluation and Investigation in Home Economics*, pp. 236-239.

of the program operated cooperatively in the community. (See pages 60-61.) They are based on the point of view that learning for each person is of the highest quality when he assumes responsibility for forming his own purposes and acting on them. A community education program may be considered to be progressing satisfactorily when groups concerned with the welfare of the people and more satisfactory family living for many have a cooperative working organization which enables persons within each group to achieve a more enriched personal and home life, and the group as a whole to make intelligent efforts to solve social, economic, civic, and educational problems of importance to it.

The total school-community program should be under constant evaluation with regard to its contribution to community life. Experimental programs have demonstrated that this can be done. For example: In recent years scientific evaluation of people's needs has resulted in efforts to improve aspects of living, notably in the areas of nutrition and housing. Controlled mass studies of human nutrition have shown the need for a better nutritional status of people in all income and educational levels. Changed dietary habits and improved health, as measured by carefully controlled devices and standards, have been produced in certain communities through large group instruction.¹⁵ Changed ideals, attitudes, and practices in home living can be seen where group housing has been improved under an educational experiment. Measurement of the degree of improvement has been made in one experimental program by the use of a community rating scale.¹⁶ Under this same experiment more detailed evaluation of small home improvements that had been the outcome of housing study at school was made through questionnaires used at the conclusion of the pupils' projects.¹⁷

All persons participating in the school-community program

¹⁵ Philadelphia Child Health Society, *Family Nutrition*, pp. 3-32.

¹⁶ University of Florida, Project in Applied Economics; bulletin, *Evaluating Rural Housing*, pp. 8-20.

¹⁷ Leon N. Henderson, *Housing in All the Grades*, Part VII, "Evaluation."

should have a part in the evaluation of it. Representatives of local, state, and national offices of education, because of their experience with similar projects, might also have a part in the evaluation of the needs, in promoting experiences advisable for different groups, and in the final estimation of the adequacy of the study programs. The school is, therefore, in a position to promote community evaluation.

An evaluation program which is comparable to the school's plan might include four main steps: first, making a general study of community needs and holding get-acquainted meetings to discover and engage the cooperation of a leaders' group; second, holding a working conference at which are clarified the educational goals upon which the school-community program is to be operated; third, determining methods of studying and organizing for work; and fourth, determining methods of recording progress and publicizing it, and of planning new studies.

Each district, group, or committee under its leader would assume responsibility for its sponsored projects, and would follow through on its program of planning, action, and evaluation which is basically similar to that of the school.

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APPENDIX

Exhibit A (1). Living Together

A Seventh Grade Study in Social Relations Canton Union School, Canton, New York ¹

SITUATION

The teachers of Canton Union School noticed that the seventh grade girls were in need of education in manners and social relationships; they observed the girls being cruel to each other and ill at ease with other people. The girls asked Miss Sanford, the homemaking teacher, to help them with etiquette. In their work, they wished to learn "to act better, to know how to be a young lady, how to introduce people, and how to act with people." County nurses, Home Bureau teachers, and 4H Club leaders said that the greatest need in the homes of the district seemed to be to know how to spend leisure hours and to have a better understanding among family members. Miss Sanford's goals were that the girls should have opportunity to practice good social living at school, to make their own choices—thereby gaining self-control—to take responsibility, to do things together that they would enjoy, to realize a feeling of importance, and to get recognition in other ways than "showing off."

EXPERIENCES GREW FROM COMMUNITY SERVICE

The girls were already organized as a Junior Red Cross Club. Their teacher suggested they think up new ways to make their Red Cross work worthwhile, hoping to get them to forget themselves in doing for others.

A *Thankful Bank* resulted from the class president's suggestion and a unanimous vote. Small gifts were to be deposited in the bank when something especially nice, such as a good grade, occurred. The money collected was to be given to the Red Cross. The teacher did not encourage the idea, allowing all initiative to

¹ Report of a study in social relations, adapted from the annual report of Miss Marguerite Sanford in June, 1943, to the State Department of Education of the University of the State of New York, Bureau of Home Economics Education, as part of the State Education Curriculum Program.

come from the pupils. They eventually collected and gave \$2.25 to the Red Cross, and the girls seemed to grow in thoughtfulness and to be less self-centered.

The club members were asked to help with the Red Cross membership drive, and this activity brought them into a businesslike relationship with adults. The girls planned an attractive window display, took responsibility for having it ready on time, and borrowed and returned their supplies themselves.

During this time the class had read aloud and discussed some plays, the themes of which were on family living. They studied some pictures cut from magazines which portrayed situations and acted out the solutions, making their own dialogues. The girls then decided to write their own play and present it in assembly. The English teacher corrected the play and helped with diction at rehearsals. The homemaking teacher helped with details of etiquette such as how to enter and leave a room, how to receive a person in one's home, and the behavior and duties of a hostess.

The culmination of the series of experiences was a silver tea party which the girls planned and gave for the teachers, giving all the girls a chance to practice their new graces. The following notice appeared in the school paper:

"The girls of the home economics class gave a tea for the faculty last Wednesday, May 12th. They served hot and cold tea, sandwiches and cookies. They made \$6.35 and had a balance of \$5.00 after paying for food materials. They gave the money to the Red Cross fund during assembly on Friday."

Reported by

MISS MARGUERITE SANFORD, Home-
making Teacher

MRS. FRANCES T. BANFORD, Principal

OUTCOMES OF THE EXPERIENCES

The pupils enjoyed the experiences, worked together happily, and showed that they were thinking about their responsibilities. The parents became aware of the teachers' efforts to help the girls with their social attitudes, but no definite parent opinion was recorded.

The ultimate results of such experiences must be evaluated by observing pupils' behavior in subsequent situations.

Exhibit A (2). Report on a Unit in Child Care for Seventh and Eighth Grade Pupils

Mamaroneck Junior High School, Mamaroneck, New York¹

THE SITUATION

The curriculum is based upon frequent surveys of the needs of the students and is adapted to meet them. Preceding 1943, the interests and desires of the girls and specific requests of parents had caused emphasis to be placed on clothing construction. In 1943, however, the need to conserve materials, the increased prices of clothing, and changes in home life offered an excellent opportunity for a revision of the home economics courses. A survey also disclosed that many girls, including those from well-to-do families, took care of children after school, in the evenings, and on Saturdays. Changes were made in the curriculum of 1943 to include the care and remodeling of clothes, and a unit in Child Care.

THE WAY THE CHILD CARE STUDY DEVELOPED

Opportunities were made for the junior high school pupils to observe for six weeks in kindergartens of our nearby elementary schools so that they might study how children behave when they are under the supervision of a trained person. Two girls visited a kindergarten at one time, each pair making two or three visits to the same school.

Class periods at the junior high school were used to plan the observations to be made, and the obligations of a visitor. During the period of observation the students talked in class about "the problems we meet when caring for children," problems such as obedience (which the girls always put at the head of the list), jealousy, feeding and sleeping, playing with children (with much thought to safety and toy sharing), clothing, and character educa-

¹ A report of a series of junior high school pupils' study of children adapted from a report made in June, 1943, by Miss Jennings to the State Department of Education of the University of the State of New York, Bureau of Home Economics Education, as part of the State Education Curriculum Program.

tion. The group drew upon their own experiences, magazine and newspaper articles, text and reference books for information.

Observations at the kindergarten covered the handling of tantrums, shyness, showing off, sharing of toys, span of interest, and individual differences, and pupils were impressed by the patience, understanding, impartiality, and control shown by the trained teachers.

The pupils made in class oral and written reports of their study, and assembled scrapbooks on child care.

The compiling of a handbook was undertaken as a class project. The purpose of the handbook is to promote better understanding between those employing girls to care for their children, and the students. The handbook includes a statement of the obligations of those who hire girls to care for their children, the responsibilities of the girls, and a summary of the class study. The handbook was left uncompleted by this class with the intention of having groups studying later in the year contribute to and revise it.

OUTCOMES OF THE EXPERIENCES

Many girls reported changes in their attitude toward children, saying they were more patient with a child and explained "why" instead of threatening in attempts to get cooperation.

The girls benefited personally. They characterized some of their own behavior as childish, and suggested ways of improving it.

Some girls expressed an interest in kindergarten work as a career because of their experiences with the children and the class discussions.

The girls' mothers thought that the experience had helped the girls deal with younger children in the home.

The principals of the schools and the kindergarten teachers reported enthusiastically about the results of the undertaking. Some of their comments were:

"The girls were more like student teachers than junior high school girls."

"The girls were so helpful. Many anticipated a problem and took care of it before it developed."

"Why can't we do this all the time?"

"We've tried this with mothers but it did not work. They were not as intelligent or adult in their attitudes as the girls."

The satisfaction of the teachers in charge of the junior high school curriculum leads them to make plans for additional opportunities next year.

Reported by
GEORGIANA M. JENNINGS
Teacher of Home Economics
Mamaroneck Junior High School

Exhibit B. Five Star Lunch Cooperative Project¹

Homemaking Girls and Elementary Grades
Oxford, N. Y., 1943-1944

In line with the program of the County Nutrition Committee to improve lunches in Chenango County, the homemaking girls of Oxford made a study of the lunches eaten by the grade children in their school and carried out a project which they called the Five Star Lunch.

The cooperation of the grade teachers was enlisted and on a given day they asked each of their pupils to write out what they had had to eat for lunch. These records were carefully studied by the homemaking girls, who found that very few were eating a Five Star Lunch—that is, a lunch consisting of a fruit, a vegetable, milk, whole grains and a hot dish. The percentage of pupils drinking milk was very high, but only one third were eating fruit or vegetables in their lunches, and a very few selected whole grains. Only three children in the entire six grades had eaten Five Star Lunches, although many had had three and four star lunches, which we thought deserved recognition. The girls decided to mark the papers by a typical primary grade method—with different colored stars for each of the five foods, and a little American flag for those who earned five stars.

Since it would have been pointless to hand back the papers with no explanation of their meaning, a little foods lesson was planned to be presented by the homemaking girls, which was then carried on by the grade teachers.

Two girls at a time went into each of the grade rooms. While one girl returned the papers to the children, the other wrote on the board the meaning of the various stars. Then the girls placed on an easel the food models representing a typical cafeteria menu and let a child choose from it a Five Star Lunch. They promised

¹ A report of a cooperative project made May 1, 1944, by Miss Miriam D. Bloomer, home economics teacher at Oxford, N. Y., to the State Department of Education of the University of the State of New York, Bureau of Home Economics Education, as part of the State Education Curriculum Program.

the children that at some future date they would be given another chance to have their own lunches checked, and left the food models with the children for the rest of the day. The teacher, in the health lesson for that day, gave all of the children an opportunity to play with the models and to choose well-balanced lunches.

The final check on the children's lunches was made a few weeks later, when the girls went into the cafeteria during the grade noon hour. This time they checked the actual lunches which the children were eating—including foods brought from home and those selected at school. They presented each child with a large white star to wear on which he pasted the smaller stars he had earned.

One change was made in the awarding of the stars. Because the new ruling on the sale of enriched bread had come into effect after the unit was started, the large gold star formerly given only for whole grains was now presented for enriched bread also.

The teachers were given additional stars to present to the children who had eaten their lunches at home, and were asked to make a report of the number of pupils in their rooms receiving each star. The tabulated results showed, of course, a big increase in the use of whole grains or enriched bread, and some gain in the use of fruits and vegetables. Best of all there were now forty-five children eating patriotic Five Star Lunches.

The children proudly wore their stars all day, and it is hoped they wore them home for their mothers and fathers to see.

Reported by MIRIAM D. BLOOMER

*Exhibit C. Sample Questionnaire for Discovering Pupil
Contacts with Young Children; Their Needs and
Interests in Caring for Them*

WHAT WE DO WITH CHILDREN

Pupil's name: _____ Class _____ Date _____

Directions: Place x in the column to show what you have done or would like to know more about doing with a young child.

Things to Do with Children	Things I Have Done	Things I Would Like to Do
Care for a child after school.		
Plan and make a place for a child to keep his toys.		
Plan and make a place for a child to hang up his clothes.		
Select a toy for a young child.		
Make a toy for a young child.		
Tell stories to a child.		
Tell stories to a group of children.		
Teach a song or poem to a child.		
Dress a baby.		
Dress a young child.		
Feed a young child.		
Help a child to learn to brush his teeth; to eat; to go to sleep.		
Select clothes children wear.		
Select a gift for a child.		

Write in the space below the things you would like to know about a child that are not included in this list.

Exhibit D. A Guide for Study in Home Living

Type of Study Device Used by Eleven- to Thirteen-Year-Olds

SEE THEM SPARKLE

When metals are clean they catch the light and glow with many colors. Do you know how easy it is to keep metals clean? It takes little work if one has the right materials to work with. It is not expensive to have the best cleaning agents—it is all in knowing what to use and how to do it. The following references will tell you of the different metals to be found in homes and how they are used:

References:

JORDAN, ZILLER, and BROWN, *Home and Family*, pp. 74-75.

JENSEN, JENSEN, and ZILLER, *Fundamentals of Home Economics*, pp. 296-297.

BALDERSTON: *Housekeeping Workbook*, pp. 35-40.

Now that we are familiar with the metals found in the home, let us gather up the examples of different metals we use in the apartment at school. Study them, and then in your committee make and try the simple homemade cleaning agent suitable for one or more of the metals. Here are the recipes for cleaning agents for the different metals:

Silver. Measure a tablespoon of whiting and mix with it enough ammonia to make a medium thick paste. Using a soft cloth, rub the paste on a piece of silver until the tarnish is removed. Then wash the silver thoroughly with hot soap suds, rinse well, and dry each piece separately. Polish with a soft cloth or chamois.

Brass and copper. Mix together 2 tablespoons of vinegar and 2 tablespoons of salt. Rub this mixture on the metal, either brass or copper or a combination of both. Apply until all the tarnish is removed. Wash it with warm soap and water and dry thoroughly.

Nickel. To clean nickel use only a solution of soap suds and

polish by rubbing vigorously with a soft dry cloth. (Note: Nickel is a hard finish placed over another metal and harsh abrasives will remove it.)

Summary. Discuss your results in the group conference.

SUGGESTIONS FOR HOME USE OR FURTHER STUDY

Ask the science teacher to help you find an explanation of the electrolytic method (salt solution in an aluminum pan) of cleaning silver.

Keep a silver drawer in order so that the pieces will not scratch each other.

How many of these blanks can you fill in with a word, or words, most appropriate to complete the meaning of the sentences?

1. The most common metals in our homes are _____, _____, _____, and _____.
2. Some examples of flat silverware are _____, _____, and _____.
3. Some examples of hollow ware are _____ and _____.
4. Nickel is ruined if cleaned with anything but _____ and _____, or _____, because it is plated on copper.
5. Sterling silver is the same as _____ silver.
6. When cleaning silver use denatured alcohol and whiting or prepared silver polish, and apply with a _____ cloth or brush.
7. _____ is a base for silver polish.
8. Brass and copper are easily cleaned with a homemade mixture of _____ and _____.
9. Pewter and aluminum can be cleaned with _____ or _____ and _____ acid such as vinegar.
10. When you are washing silver you should sort the pieces (that is, wash all the knives, then all the forks, etc.) so that they will not be _____.

Exhibit E. A Guide for Study: Let's Launder Today!

A SITUATION

The foods group, let's suppose, has just finished a class and wishes to launder the aprons, the dish towels, and the bathroom towels. There is no washing machine in the apartment, some of the clothes are more soiled than others, some will have stains, the guest towels are colored, and there are white linen dish towels and white cotton aprons.

You see there are many things to think about in doing this laundry. What would you need to know to wash the towels, linens, and aprons? Are they all treated alike? Try to answer the questions which follow and if you do not know the answers you may consult the references given so that when your group has its turn in doing the laundry you will know what to do.

1. What equipment will you need to do the wash?
2. What will you do about stained articles at this time?
3. Will you wash some articles before others? In what order, and why?
4. How many times will you rinse the clothes?
5. Which of the clothes will look better if you use bluing, and when will you use it?
6. Which of these clothes require starch and why?
7. Will you save time by cleaning up your working materials before hanging up the wash or by hanging up the wash before cleaning up? Why?
8. If it were possible for you to do so, would it be better to hang the clothes out-of-doors? Why?

References:

FRIEND and SHULTZ: *A First Book in Home Economics*, pp. 506-520.

CALVERT: *A First Course in Homemaking*, pp. 331-342.

BALDERSTON: *Housekeeping Workbook*, pp. 47-64.

Bulletins on laundering—in File.

WHAT TO DO IN THE PLANNING GROUP

List the steps you will follow in doing the laundry and the time you think each step will take. When you do the laundry use the chart form and check your time, making necessary corrections so that you can make better plans the next time.

WASHING THE CLOTHES

Steps	Time
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	
9.	
10.	

SUMMARY

How did your plan help you?

How can you tell whether your laundry was well done?

In what ways was the laundry done at school like the way mother does it at home?

Exhibit F. A Sample Daily Schedule of a Home-Living Teacher in an Eighth Grade School ¹

Date: October	12	13	14	15	16
Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
A.M. 9:00-9:45	3rd plans 20 min. 4th plans 20 min.	3rd fruits in diet study	1st make dolls 8th help with puppets	3rd prepare fruits	4th(1) menu, market plans finished
9:45-10:30	5th(2) Colonial unit	2nd plan for mothers' tea			
10:30-11:15	5th(1) costume plans	5th(2) prepare Colonial food	6th(2) lunch unit	5th(1) play practice, costumes	6th(1) lunch unit
11:15-12:00	6th(1) conf. 6th(2) conf.				

12:00-1:15 Lunch—Cafeteria Assisting—Planning

P.M. 1:15-2:15	7th(1) home-making	7th(1) home-making	7th(2) home-making	7th(2) home-making	Conference for home activities
2:15-3:15	8th(1) clothing	8th(1) clothing	8th(2) care of sick	8th(2) care of sick	Girl Scout projects
3:15-3:45	Home visit	Weekly faculty meeting, tea	P.T.A. study group	Home visit	

Date: October	19	20	21	22	23
Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
A.M. 9:00-9:45	4th(1) market trip	4th(1) prepare and serve lunch	1st puppet show	4th(2) house-keeping (own project)	4th(1) confer on meal—new plans
9:45-10:30	5th(2) plans				
10:30-11:15	5th(1) confer. plans	5th(2) prepare Colonial period foods	6th(2) lunch unit	5th(1) play practice, costumes	6th(1) lunch unit
11:15-12:00	6th(1) plans 6th(2) plans.				

12:00-1:15 Lunch—Cafeteria Assisting—Planning

P.M. 1:15-2:15	7th(1) home-making	7th(1) home-making	7th(2) home-making	7th(2) home-making	Conference for home activities
2:15-3:15	8th(1) clothing	8th(1) clothing	8th(2) demonstration	8th(2) work on project	Girl Scout projects
3:15-3:45		Faculty meeting, tea	2nd mothers' meeting		

¹ Note: The two weeks form is filled out as teachers and pupils plan their projects. A duplicate is posted on the office bulletin board so that all teachers may indicate the time they wish reserved for their classes.

Exhibit G. "Situation Schedules" Used by Margaret Hutchins in Analyzing Pupils' Cooperative Behavior

SITUATION SCHEDULE 3

Bob saw in a shop window a suède jacket which he liked very much and which he hoped to own. However, his mother explained to him that the family clothing allowance was limited and that, inasmuch as he had recently bought a new sweater, the money should be saved for other family clothing purposes.

- (1) Bob was resentful and was very disagreeable to everyone in the family.
- (2) He said the decision was unfair and walked away in a huff.
- (3) He was disappointed, but thought the decision fair.
- (4) He saw the point and agreed wholeheartedly with his mother.
- (5) He said he would be willing to earn the money for it if he could have it.

SITUATION SCHEDULE 13

Sue's class was having a discussion in regard to the most satisfactory method of sharing in a community clean-up campaign. The discussion leader was eager to get an expression of opinion from each class member.

- (1) Sue was obviously bored.
- (2) She showed no interest and her answer to each question which was asked of her was, "I don't know."
- (3) She made a vague suggestion only when she was asked to do so.
- (4) She half-heartedly volunteered some suggestions.
- (5) She expressed her ideas clearly, showing great interest in the subject, and took a leading part in planning the ways.

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Index

- Adolescents, books on community life, 103
- Advertisements, and buying practices, 211, 217
- Advisory Council, activities of, 228
- Allowance, children's management of, 206, 208
- Anecdotes, *see also* Evaluation as observation record, 253
- Animals, classroom feeding experiments with, 111
- Anxiety, overcoming, 47
- Audio-visual materials, use of, 17, 246
- Behavior, effect of social experiences on, 99, 128
 - preadolescent, 54
 - study of, 100
- Behavior problems, and lack of security, 47, 52
- Boys, and clothing study, 185
 - and home mechanics, 158, 165, 243
 - and housing, 163
 - development of social attitudes through games, 98
 - homemaking instruction for, in elementary schools, 13
- Broadcasting, school, 140
- Cafeteria, educational value of, 128
 - environment and equipment in, 126
- Canning, group activity in, 123
- Canton (N. Y.) Union School, 275
- Child care, experiences in, 100, 137, 234
 - questionnaire for discovering pupil opportunities for, 282
 - seventh- and eighth-grade unit in, 277
- Child care (*Continued*)
 - typical understandings children may accept concerning, 144
- Child care centers, 60, 68
- Children, advanced, 70
 - classification by age rather than by I.Q., 32
 - curriculum based on needs of, 30, 37
 - developmental needs of, 30, 42, 46, 52
 - effect of housing on, 158
 - experiences in economics, 203
 - managing an allowance, 206, 208
 - food preferences and eating habits, 130
 - personal needs, 23, 35
 - problem, *see* Problem children
 - social experiences at school, 6; *see also* Social education
- Children's books, on community life, 102
 - on consumer-economics, 217
 - on dress and handicrafts, 200
 - on family life, 101
 - on foods, 107
 - on health and safety, 58
 - on homemaking, 104
 - on houses and families, 169
 - on sex education, 54
- Choice making, in buying, 211
- Christmas gifts, a seventh-grade project, 185
- Classroom, attractiveness and efficiency of, 17, 239
 - experiences in group living in, 51, 80, 123
- Clothing, *see also* Grooming
 - books for children on, 200
 - choice of, 175, 199
 - complete costume, 192

- Clothing (*Continued*)
 good taste acquired in, 191
 home attitudes toward, 174
- Clothing study, 173
 buying, 193
 correlation with other studies, 177
 dramatization of dress, 183
 laundering, 179
 making new clothes, 188
 materials and fit, 175
 renovation, 187
 typical understandings children may accept in, 197
 use and care of garments, 178
- Clubs, school, value of, 59
 value of, to preadolescents, 55
- Color, concepts acquired in, in artistic arrangements, 260
 in clothing study, 191
 in housing study, 161
- Colorado State Department of Education re goals, 27
- Comics, 96
- Community, as an educational resource, 29, 65
 evaluation of school's contribution to, 269
 housing projects, 162
 housing study in school, 157
- Community activities, *see also* School-community program
 school cooperation in, 7
- Community agencies, cooperation with, 36, 229
- Community centers, and the school, 8, 17
- Community life, books for children on, 102
 preadolescent experiences in, 58, 98
- Consumer-economics, books for children on, 217
 buying clothes, 193
 daily experiences in use and conservation, 203
 food buying, 57, 86, 113, 121
 foundations in, laid by family attitudes, 205
- Consumer-economics (*Continued*)
 management experiences, 207, 208, 209
 sixth-grade study, 213
 standards for buying, 210, 213, 215, 216
 typical understandings children may accept in, 215
- Convalescents, care of, 145-150
 preadolescents help in, 145
 school experiences in, 146
 typical understandings children may accept in, 148
- Cooking, books for children on, 119
 early experiences in, 112
 illustrative fourth-grade experiences in, 85
- Cooperative educational planning, 5, 33, 36, 45, 227
- "Core" experiences, the homemaking teacher as coordinator of, 66
- Costume study, 183, 198
- Curriculum, and a social living core, 33
 centrally planned and administered, 21
 changes needed in, 23
 standards for making, 39, 221
 correlation between areas of study in, 71, 114, 225, 280
 democratically planned and administered, 68, 69
 goals followed by, 27
 material on personal and home living in, 71
 preschool, 43
 to meet needs of preadolescents, 56
 use of personal, social, and home-living materials in, 11
- Democratic living, *see also* School-community program
 education for, 3, 26, 42
 school experiences in, 42, 81
 evaluation of, *see* Evaluation the family and, 3

- Department of Agriculture Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics foods list, 132
- Departmentalization, 19
- Discipline of preadolescents, 54, 98
- Discrimination, democracy vs., 5
- Dish towels, a seventh-grade project, 260
- Dolls, use of, in clothing study, 191
- Dramatization, in intermediate grades, 183
- in primary grades, 49
- Dress, see Clothing
- Dressing, independence in, 174
- Eating habits, 130
- Economics, see also Consumer-economics
- books for children on, 217
- experiences in budgeting, 204, 206, 209
- food buying, 57, 86, 113, 121
- housing, 164
- recreation, 215
- Educational Policies Commission, 26
- Eighth grade, a unit in child care, 277
- Elementary school, see also School-community program
- as integral part of society, 3
- freedom to build curriculum necessary in, 33
- goals of education for family life in, 12, 28, 70
- home and family life materials neglected in traditional curriculum of, 13
- home improvement projects in, 163
- housing study in, 158
- new outlook vs. tradition in, 5
- organization and administration of, 19
- responsibility of, toward problems of individuals and families, 3
- for social education, 6
- traditional aims vs. accomplishment in, 4
- Eleven- to thirteen-year-olds, books for, about buying, 218
- about clothes, 201
- about housing, 170
- experiences in homemaking for, 151
- guide for study in home-living with, 283
- Environment, as an educational resource, 17
- as reflected in home-living rooms, 239, 241
- influence of, 31
- value of knowledge of, 63, 64, 65
- Evaluation, by subjective and objective appraisal, 252
- of attitudes, 262, 288
- of behavior, 138, 252
- of experiences, 60, 125, 126
- at Thanksgiving party, 110
- by the children, 85, 87, 89, 90, 256
- by the teacher, 92, 118, 122, 267
- in clothing study, 190
- in home-care activities, 154
- of school-community program, 250, 268, 270
- of toys and games, 142
- techniques for, 258
- Exhibit, classroom, of clothing* from local stores, 196
- "Experience" concept vs. "project" plan, 38
- Experiences, values sought through, 60
- Experiences in home living, educational value of, 35
- a fifth-grade series of, 225
- a school-home project, 155
- integral with school-living, 13
- of preadolescents, 57
- reflected, in school experiences, 79
- in shared experiences, 83
- Family, collaboration of the, on school-community program, 227

- Family (Continued)
 economics of the, 121, 215
 food-buying problems of the, 57
 teacher visits to the, 64 [101
 Family life, books for children about,
 goals of education for, 12, 23
 sharing of recreation in, 94
 Family Life Education Program, 231
 basic values sought by, 236
 Fears, overcoming, 47
 preadolescent, 54
 Fifth grade, series of home-living ex-
 periences, 225
 First aid, 11
 First grade, playhouse project, 161
 Five Star Lunch, 280
 Five-year-olds, reflection of home life
 in play of, 79
 Five- to eight-year-olds, development
 of, 46
 Florida method of teaching home
 improvement throughout the
 grades, 162, 230, 269
 Food buying, experience in, 57, 86,
 113, 121
 Food preferences, children's, 130
 Foods study, books for seven-to-nine-
 year-olds on, 107
 case study approach to, 121
 illustrative seventh-grade sequence,
 123
 in care of children, 138
 in care of convalescents, 147
 in fourth grade, 82
 in health units, 11
 in primary grades, 13, 106
 in school cafeteria, 128
 laboratory room for, 18, 239
 on costs, 115, 121
 related to home and community,
 119
 typical understandings children may
 accept in, 132
 Fourth grade, and home-sharing, 83
 and planning, preparing, and serv-
 ing a lunch, 85
 experiences of, in democratic liv-
 ing, 81
 Four- to six-year-old, development of,
 46, 79
 Gang, the, 54
 Ginger cookies, 108
 Girls, homemaking instruction for, in
 elementary schools, 13
 Goals, evaluation of, 60
 ineffectiveness of traditional, 21
 of general education, 26
 of group activities, 69
 reflected in recording, marking, and
 reporting, 264
 Government agencies, school coopera-
 tion with, 6, 231
 Grooming, personal, 10, 181, 197
 Group activities, care of homeroom,
 81, 152
 certain needs met by, 32
 correlating school, home, and com-
 munity study of, 69; see also
 Curriculum
 development of, 5, 37, 51
 evaluation through, 26
 fourth-grade shared experiences, 82
 for nine- to eleven-year-olds, 59
 guidance of, 138
 preschool, social adjustment
 through, 45
 sewing projects, 184
 sixth-grade lunch, 116
 study materials needed for, 125
 teachers' record of progress in, 267;
 see also Evaluation
 within classes, 34
 Guidance, in group projects, 138
 in preschool and early primary
 grades, 43, 46
 necessity for, 32, 37
 of preadolescents, 56
 Health, books for children on, 58
 Health education, and a guidance
 program, 32
 in kindergartens and nursery
 schools, 9, 47
 in primary grades, 47, 49
 of preadolescents, 58, 59

Health education (*Continued*)

- physical education, 10
- school lunches, 10
- textbook and laboratory aids to, 10
- through caring for convalescents, 145, 149

Home economics, city school survey of, 22

Home economists, search for a better curriculum by, 12

Home living, children's participation in, 22, 151

- guide for study in, 283

- integral with school home-living experiences, 13, 28, 137, 152

Home-living rooms, as laboratories, 238

Homemaking study, rooms for, 18, 243

Homemaking teacher, see also Leadership

- a key person, 66, 131

Homeroom, caring for, 152

- fourth-grade experiences in care of, 81

- "self-contained," type of organization, 20

Housekeeping, 151

- dignifying activities in, 152

- economics of, 207

- efficient working methods and tools in, 153, 167

- typical understandings children may accept in, 166

Housing, 11, 157

- books for children on, 169

- choice of neighborhood, 157

- economics of, 164

- first-grade pupils' study of, 161

- typical understandings children may accept in, 168

Industrial arts, need for rooms and equipment for, 18

Institute of Family Relations, 233

Intercultural contacts, through foods, festivals, and household customs, 114

Intercultural contacts (*Continued*)

- value of, 99

- Interests, basis of, in environment, 79, 106, 110, 113, 137, 145, 151, 152, 158, 173, 176, 203, 207

- in personal needs, 42, 47, 48, 52, 56

- motivation of, by materials of study, 245

- by methods of study, 244

Juvenile delinquency, 234

Kentucky school and home experiments, 230

Kindergarten, administration of, 19

- as study and observation for older children, 138, 277

- health education in, 9

- needs of the individual ignored by fixed schedules in, 8

- social experiences taught in, 8

- value of experiences in, 46

Kitchen, an eighth-grade project, 155

Laundering, and care of clothes, 179

- guide for study of, 285

Leadership, by administrators, 21, 32, 69, 126, 222, 237, 247

- by children, 59, 225, 229; see also Group activities

- by classroom teacher, 63, 223

- by homemaking teacher, 12, 66, 238, 261

- through supervision, 67, 224

- by lay persons, 66, 228

- by special teachers, 223

- in the school as a unit, 33

Leisure, education for, 7, 34

- reading during, 96

- valuable activities for, 93, 95, 209

Lunch, mid-morning, 9, 34

- planning and preparing, in a co-operative project, 280

- a fourth-grade project, 85

- sixth-grade experiences in, 116

- school, 126

- Lunch, school (*Continued*)
 educational value of, 128
 rooms and equipment for, 126
 social experiences in, 127
 ways to improve the service, 131
- Mamaroneck (N. Y.) Junior High School, 277
- Manual training, need for rooms and equipment for, 18
- Marketing methods, see also Food buying
 study of, 211
- Marking system, value of changes in, 266
- Meals, see also Food preferences, Lunch, Nutrition study
 planning and preparing, 85
 typical understandings concerning, 133
- Money, spending, see Allowance
- Mothers' clubs, contribution of, 16
- National Education Association, Educational Policies Commission, 26
- Nationalities, see Intercultural contacts
- Nine- to eleven-year-olds, books for,
 about buying, 218
 about clothing, 201
 about housing, 170
 experiences in homemaking with, 151
- Nine- to twelve-year-olds, books for,
 on community life, 103
 on family life, 103
- Nursery school, see Preschool
- Nursery schools, W. P. A., 232
- Nutrition study, 110
 foods list, 132
 gradual extension of, 112
 homemaking project in, 280
 more complex in intermediate years, 113
 third-grade science, 72
- Objectives, see Goals
- Organization, see also Leadership
 influence of on educational experiences, 19, 221
- Oxford (N. Y.) Five Star Lunch project, 280
- Parent-Teacher Associations, as an educational resource, 16, 229
- Parents, community activities shared by, 7
 cooperation of, as an educational resource, 30 [6
 interest of, in the school program, link between school and community, 8
 mothers, and seventh-grade foods study, 123
 in school cafeteria, 129
 in sewing projects, 184
 school experiences shared by, 16, 119
 with nursery school, 45
 in planning child's schedule, 33
 in planning school home-living experiences, 36, 227
- Periods, short, vs. blocks of time, 34
- Personal grooming, 10, 181, 197
- Physical education programs in elementary schools, 10; see also Health education
- Platoon plan, see Departmentalization
- Play, see also Recreation
 as a medium for learning, 44, 47, 183
- Playground, improvement of, a sixth-grade project, 166
 use of, 10, 59, 68
- Playhouse, used to teach housing, 11, 160
- Playthings, see Toys
- Preadolescents, see also eleven- to thirteen-year-olds, nine- to eleven-year-olds
 ability to reason logically, 56
 development of, 52
 help of, in caring for convalescents, 145

Preadolescents (*Continued*)

- interest in adult-like experiences, 56
- social attitudes learned in school by, 98
- Preschool, books for, on community life, 102
- on family life, 101
- on housing, 169
- education for democratic living in, 42
- essential part of every school, 19, 36
- goals for, 70
- health education in, 9
- home-life activities in, 79
- interrelationships between home and, 8
- social contacts in, 49
- value of experiences in, 43
- Primary grades, home-life experiences and, 80
- increasingly complex experiences, 49
- school experiences in home living, 13
- use of home-living materials, 11
- Problem children, well-rounded experiences for, 14
- Procedures, variety of, 63, 69, 244
- Program of study, see Curriculum
- Progress charts, 182, 251, 258, 265
- "Project" plan vs. "experience" concept, 38
- Promotions, in centrally planned programs, 21
- marking and, 267
- Radio programs, explored and evaluated, 139, 140
- Reading, in leisure hours, 96
- Records, anecdotal, 253
- children's, 83, 126, 182, 265
- progress charts, 182, 251, 265
- value of, 65
- Recreation, 11
- at noon and after school, 34
- economic aspects of, 215

Recreation (*Continued*)

- experiences gained through, 93
- Regimentation, dangers of, 31
- under departmental plan, 20
- Reporting, newer system of, 266
- Resources, see also Toys
- educational, 245
- child's experiences as, 37
- in home, school, and community, 71
- out-of-school, 74
- variation in use of, 15
- Responsibility, education for, 50
- preadolescent acceptance of, 55, 98
- Round table discussions, use of, 94, 95, 261
- Safety program, 10, 58
- books for children in, 58
- Schedules, 34
- fixed, disadvantage of, 8
- for a home-living teacher, 287
- School space, adequate rooms and equipment for family life education program, 236
- desirable features of, 36
- School-community program, 7
- evaluation of, 60-61, 268
- leadership of, 68, 224
- methods of work, 69, 244, 269
- modification of, 221
- persistent problems, 67
- Second grade, home-living materials for, 11
- Thanksgiving party for first grade given by, 108
- Secondary schools, home and family life education in, 13
- Security, assured through oneness with grown-ups, 51
- self-adjustment, 55, 98
- lack of, and behavior problems, 47, 52, 54
- Seventh grade, Christmas-gift project of, 185
- cooperative foods study of, 123
- dish-towel project of, 260
- study in social relations, 275

